The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President's letter to the Chicago sound-money conference has a weight greater than that which naturally belongs to his official position—the weight, namely, of a temperate and truthful portrayal of the real nature of the silver propaganda. In this respect Mr. Cleveland now sees more clearly and speaks out more emphatically than ever before. Like nearly every other public man in this country, he has heretofore felt constrained to acknowledge himself "a friend of silver," in favor of its "judicious" use in the currency; but the scales have fallen from his eyes, and he now sharply declares that "the line of battle is drawn between the forces of safe currency and those of silver monometallism." In thus clarifying his view of the situation, the President has but progressed along with general opinion; and for the change the silver agitators have themselves to thank. By their reckless language they have made it impossible for intelligent men longer to misunderstand them. When they say that the "basis" of our currency must be enlarged, people now see that they mean depreciated money. When they talk about raising prices, people understand that they mean scaling down their own debts. They continue to argue gravely about maintaining "the parity" and securing an international agreement, but this is getting to be more and more evidently a mere blind, and their intention to debase and repudiate is becoming clearer every day. To have this seen and said by the President is a great stroke for national honesty.

Mr. Cleveland is undoubtedly correct in maintaining that this silver question needs only to be argued out before the people in order to be settled right. The silver-men think themselves very original and ingenious, but they are merely the inflationists and repudiationists whom the world has been familiar with since the beginning, masquerading in what is simply the latest of a long series of disguises. All that is needed is the arrival of the dramatic crisis when, as the stage directions say, "all unmask," and the jig is up for the financial villain as surely as for the theatrical villain. The rapidity with which the silverites are throwing away their masks is therefore most encouraging. They will soon be avowedly where the greenbackers were in 1874, and meet a like fate. Only now, as then, it is necessary, as the President urges, that honest-currency men should unite when rogue-currency men combine. We must have men in 1895 and 1896, like Garfield in 1874 and 1875, who have thought this question through and are ready to go on the stump and meet all comers. We must have business men organize, must have silver lies run down and speared fast to the ground. We must ignore party lines in this business and vote as we want our wages and debts paid. The action of the President and his cabinet ought surely to restrain the Democratic party from surrendering to the silver inflationists. Let Republican leaders be equally outspoken, and the agitators will be forced to flock by themselves. When they do that, no fire from heaven will be necessary to consume them.

We have often pointed out the mischief that is worked among weak minds by statistics. Many a man, for instance, never dreamed he had not enough currency for the needs of his business until some one told him how much money there was in the country "per capita." As soon as he learns there is only $23 "per capita," he sits down on a log and weeps and wails and wonders what we are coming to. So also when he takes up the custom-house returns and finds the imports exceed the exports, he concludes that his neighbors are all running in debt for silks and champagne, although he knows that among his own acquaintances things are going on as usual, and notes are met with the customary regularity. There is a similar alarm about "plutocrats" and "watered stock." When some people foot up the number of "plutocrats" there are, and the quantity of watered stock there is, they want to leave a dying world. Judge Gaynor, for instance, although drawing a comfortable salary in Brooklyn, and surrounded by a peaceable and reasonably contented community, writes out to St. Louis that "untold millions of sham, dishonest, and oppressive paper stock and bonds" are "preparing to sap agricultural, mechanical, manufacturing, mercantile and professional, and all other honest industries." Now, if the judge were obliged to state under oath how many millions the "untold millions" were, and in what manner "oppressive paper stock" "saps agricultural, mechanical, etc., honest industry," it would make him happy as a king and lively as a cricket. He would see that he was the victim of a bugaboo.

The country long ago discovered in McKinley one of those great geniuses whose province it is to make difficult and complex problems clear as daylight, and his peculiar powers shone to great advantage last week in Hartford. He brought out a simple little receipt to cure financial ills, which is one of those flashes of insight that make ordinary men beat their heads and tear their hair in rage at their own stupidity in not having perceived the great truth themselves. People have been worrying over the gold reserve, the country was brought to the verge of panic and bankruptcy on account of it, and a costly contract had to be made with foreign bankers—all to meet a difficulty which McKinley surmounts in one sentence. Says he: "The outflow of gold will never trouble us when the inflow of gold is only large enough." What a ridiculous plight that leaves the President and the syndicate in! Why didn't they think of that? If they did not, why didn't they send for McKinley? These are painful questions to be compelled to ask, but still more painful is it to think that such a man as this should be forced to journey about the country drumming up delegates to nominate him for the Presidency. Any other country possessing such a political genius would seize him and make him President against his will, if necessary. We could have him as President with his hearty consent, and yet we lie back and smile at his hunt for delegates. The outflow of gold he can contemplate with serenity, but the outflow of delegates is what starts him on his parlor-car travels.

The large use of instruments of credit in wholesale trade, obviating by so much the need of actual currency, has long been well known. What has not been so well established is the growing extension of the same system to retail trade. Prof. David Kinley publishes in the March *Journal of Political Economy* some inquiries directed to this point, which yield most instructive results. Through the comptroller of the currency, questions were sent to national banks asking for the amounts deposited on the nearest settling day by retail grocers, butchers, clothiers, furniture-dealers, and fuel-dealers, with kinds of money and checks and other instruments of credit specified. Replies were received from 2,465 banks, all over the country, and from the returns a rough but sufficiently accurate estimate can be made out showing the part played by currency and credits respectively in retail trade. Prof. Kinley makes out a table covering all the States and Territories, and shows that payments by check range from 54 per cent. of the total settlements in retail trade in the North Central States to 65 per cent. in the South Central. The bearing of the investigation on present currency discussions is thus stated by Prof. Kinley:

"While it is generally admitted that the larger part of wholesale business is done on credit, some have claimed that only a small portion of retail trade is so conducted, and that the supply of money should, therefore, be increased for the daily needs of the people. The present investigation shows, however, that credit plays an important rôle in retail payments; its results are, therefore, on the whole,

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in the line of former conclusions as to the importance of credit instruments in payments and exchanges generally, and against the necessity of any additional provisions for simply increasing the volume of money without taking into consideration the other and at least equally important element of our circulation."

The price of beef is now higher than it was in the year 1873. This fact ought to gladden the hearts of the silverites, who think that low prices are the bane of the human race. Yet we have not heard of any public meeting being called to celebrate this advance in the price of steaks and roasts. There is to be an advance in the price of coal if the anthracite companies can bring it about, and there is already an advance in petroleum. In none of these cases is there any sign of public rejoicing such as ought, according to the silver theory, to attend the advance in prices. It may be replied that the theory requires the advance to be general before it becomes beneficial. In other words, people are not benefited by paying 5 cents a pound more for beef and 25 cents a ton more for coal unless at the same time they have to pay a dollar more for shoes and two dollars more for a coat, and other things in proportion. The idea is that when prices become high all around, wages will be raised proportionately. But unless they are raised more than proportionately, the laboring man is no better off. So the vital question for all persons who work for hire and all who have fixed incomes—that is, for ninety-five out of every hundred persons in the community—is, who will guarantee that their wages will rise simultaneously with the advance in general prices and a little more than in due proportion to such advance? A committee of guarantee ought to be appointed at once. Senator Jones of Nevada, Don Cameron, and the author of 'Coin's Financial School' ought to be members of it, with President Andrews of Brown University for consulting actuary. There is no time to be lost.

Very few ministers—of the Methodist persuasion, at all events—will be willing to believe that Senator Morgan, the chairman of the Senate committee on foreign affairs, had not been drinking when he composed his explanation of the English difficulty with Venezuela, to wit, that Great Britain is quarrelling with Venezuela for the purpose of getting hold of the Venezuela gold-fields in order to maintain her monometallic gold system. To this Alabama Sage, the gold standard in England is in constant danger of collapse for want of gold, and the Government, in order to keep up the supply, grabs all the gold it can in all parts of the world and carries it to the mint. He thinks we should do something to stop her little game. There are, of course, many men as ignorant and silly as this in other countries, but we do not believe one could be found on the civilized globe to make the exhibition of himself that Morgan makes. The shame of him, too, is aggravated by the fact that we sent him abroad to represent us in an august international tribunal, side by side with eminent jurists and scholars and gentlemen, last year. Worse still, he is actually chairman of the committee on foreign affairs of the Senate. His biographical sketch says he got "an academic education" somewhere in Tennessee, and we should ascribe his follies to the limitations of this curriculum if it were not that Lodge, who graduated at Harvard, follows close behind him in support of similar tomfooleries. We should say, too, that he was a useful illustration of what the Democratic party can do in these days in the way of producing statesmen, if it were not that Frye, the Maine Republican, talks on foreign politics in a way fully as well calculated to excite the suspicions of clergymen. One thing is certain, and that is, as we grow in size, and power, and pretensions, we must provide different instruments for the management of our foreign relations. It is preposterous to try to do business and maintain friendly relations with great foreign states through these politicians, who are either shamming for their own fun, like Lodge, or are, like Morgan, giving the world in our name, and in a black broadcloth coat, a gloomy savage's views of the working of civilization.

Very disturbing news was received from Hawaii by the last steamer. On the evening of April 1, Mrs. Dominis, the ex-Queen, who is a prisoner, although allowed to take exercise in the open air, "was observed exchanging salutations with a body of political prisoners returning to jail from their daily labor on the roads. She was first seen to wave her handkerchief to them from the east veranda of her former palace." This salutation was responded to silently by the road workers. The event has taught the Government that "little reliance is to be placed upon the ex-Queen's oath of allegiance or act of abdication." But this is not the most alarming news brought by this steamer. In proportion as Great Britain neglects her opportunity to grasp the islands, the danger of Japan's seizing them increases. "Serious and growing apprehension is expressed here," says the news budget, "as to what the Japanese Government may feel *compelled* to do with Hawaii after the termination of the war with China." Jingoism, we are told, has taken possession of certain Japanese politicians. This means that they have their Morgans and Lodges and Fryes, just as we do—a sad state of things for Japan, no doubt, but one that must be reckoned with in Hawaii just the same. The budget concludes by saying: "Altogether, more danger is feared from the Japanese than from any other source." This is very strange indeed, for how could more danger be feared from any country than from England? We shall never believe it unless it is officially communicated to our Government by Minister Thurston's successor when he shall be appointed.

Minister Thurston's probable departure from Washington as *persona non grata*, it seems, was known to the royalists in Honolulu before it was known to the public in general. "It is clear," says the news budget, "that the 'tip' came from the informant in the State Department who warned the Queen and her advisers that President Cleveland would instruct Minister Willis to demand that President Dole and his associates should turn over the government to her." Another "tip," from the same source probably, was that "Senator Pettigrew submitted to Secretary Gresham his virulent speech against the Hawaiian Government in the recent cable debate, and that both Secretary Gresham and President Cleveland approved it." This is little less than treason on Pettigrew's part, and it is a wonder that he should have dared to do it. It remains to be seen how such a damning fact was kept secret here while publicly talked about in Honolulu. Very likely it reached the ears of those road-workers and led to the exchange of salutations with Mrs. Dominis which had such a disquieting effect. If so, Senator Pettigrew ought to take greater precautions the next time he has a midnight consultation with Gresham. There is a hint that Minister Willis's place may become too hot for him, and that there are just as good reasons for calling him *persona non grata* as there were for applying that epithet to Mr. Thurston, but up to the sailing of the last steamer he had not received his passports.

We do not often agree with the Hon. Hugh J. Grant, but we read on Tuesday his manifesto, issued on the occasion of his taking command of Tammany, with peculiar interest. It is not quite as pleasant reading as that old one of 1888, when he promised to fill our offices "with the highest order of citizenship the county affords." But he recognizes the signs of the times when he invites William C. Whitney, E. Ellery Anderson, and divers other distinguished citizens to join the organization. There never was a time when it needed such men more. W. C. Whitney and E. Ellery Anderson and Mr. George G. Haven in particular ought to be there. One of Mr. Whitney's best-known public papers was a eulogy on Croker as an honest, hard-working man, who was trying to serve his country according to his lights. Moreover, Mr. Whitney was, with Mr. Haven, the park commissioner, one of the very earliest to discover Mr. Grant's commanding talents. In those now apparently far-off days, when Mr. Grant had just taken office as our new mayor, and the rich were rallying round him, and he was filling the whole city with promise, Mr. Whitney called attention to his immense abilities, and the probabilities that

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his career would be one of unusual brilliancy—an estimate in which Mr. Haven heartily concurred. "That young man," said one, "is a person of extraordinary powers." "Right you are," said another. "He will go far," said another. "You bet," said a third. The whole community fell in with this view.

He makes one remark in his manifesto which we think of itself shows that the man has a great future:

> "It is the time for Democrats to get together and help make an organization under the roof and rules of old Tammany Hall which shall work for the clean and honest administration of municipal affairs, which shall labor to overthrow the hypocrisy which has beclouded the eyes and minds of the people of this city, and which shall place the government of the city of New York once more in the hands of New Yorkers. It is the duty of every New York Democrat to do this, the duty of every one who loves his party, of every one who has any local pride, of every one who has a contempt for sham."

Now, we know there are plenty of carpers who will cry out that any one could have said this, that we all knew this, and so forth. No man like Mr. Grant can utter a word without having the authorship claimed by some trumpery fellow who is trying to live on other people's brains. What we say is, if this was so easy to say, why did not some one say it? Who hindered him? The facts of the situation were as patent to everybody as to Mr. Grant—the condition of the city and the work before Tammany. Why then did not somebody besides Mr. Grant perceive it, penetrate the heart of the crisis, see the need of the hour, and proclaim the saving truth? Simply because nobody else was H. J. Grant. There is only one Hugh J. Grant, not two—only one man with the perceptive power necessary to set Tammany to its proper work.

A notable victory for the principle of non-partisanship in judicial elections was won in Wisconsin week before last. For a number of years in that State there has been a growing popular conviction that a judge who had served one term with credit should be given another term without regard to his politics. In pursuance of this policy the Republicans have more than once joined in the reëlection of a Democrat when they might have put one of their own party in his place. Under ordinary circumstances the precedent of continuing on the bench a faithful incumbent whose term was about to expire would hardly have been questioned in the Republican party this spring, although he was a Democrat in his political affiliations. But party feeling has run high in Wisconsin since the Democrats got control of the State in 1890 for four years, and also of both the United States senatorships; and when the tidal wave of last fall swept the Republicans back by more than 50,000 majority, the professional politicians, who had never liked the non-partisan principle, resolved to overthrow it. They accordingly nominated a Republican lawyer, and counted upon the 54,000 majority of last November to carry him on the bench in April. But a number of the best Republican newspapers in the State, under the lead of the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, refused to endorse this grab game, and called upon the people to sustain the policy of retaining good judges in office without reference to their politics. The appeal was successful, and although Wisconsin apparently remains as strongly Republican on national politics as last fall, it has reëlected a Democrat to the Supreme bench. The incident is full of encouragement to all believers in the non-partisan principle everywhere.

A bill to establish the office of commissioner of public records in Connecticut is now before the Legislature of that State. The need of such an officer can be fully appreciated only by those who have had personal acquaintance with the records of the counties, cities, and towns of the various States, or have followed the work of the commissioner in Massachusetts. In that State, where the condition of the records was fully up to the average, many had been lost, and many more were in danger from fire, theft, or mutilation. Most of these are now safe, and improvement in the general condition is apparent. The use of permanent ink on public records, which is now required by law in Massachusetts and is proposed in New York, is among the important reforms introduced by the commissioner. The office was established as an experiment, but its operation met with instant popular approval, and it is now both permanent and held in high esteem. We feel sure that the people of Connecticut will manifest the same appreciation if the Legislature follows the example set by the neighbor State. One indirect result will be a revival of local historical and antiquarian interest; and, as in Massachusetts, the preservation of the earliest records by copying and printing will surely be resorted to.

We are extremely sorry that State Senator W. P. Goebel should have had to kill Secretary John Sanford of the Farmers' and Traders' Bank at Covington, Ky., on Thursday. The reason why Goebel killed Sanford was that Sanford tried to kill him, having "lain in wait" for him on the steps of the First National Bank. One or other of them had to die, because they belonged to "Kentucky's best-known families" and were "leaders in politics, business, and society." Politics, business, and society cannot have two leaders in Covington, Ky. One has to perish sooner or later. Goebel was bright, and excited the envy of Hallam and Meyers. Goebel and Sanford ran rival banks. Hence "bitter political feeling." Then at last "the bitter attack" on Sanford appeared in the local paper, referring in its headline to him in "depraved language." One of the bankers was doomed. Sanford leaves a son, who knows what he owes to the memory of his deceased parent and likewise to Goebel. "General regret" over the affair is expressed by the Kentucky colony in Washington. No joy; no exultation. The banking business in Kentucky is evidently what insurance men call "extra-hazardous." It is not every man who could spot a rival cashier lying in wait for him, in time to get the drop on him. We strongly advise elderly Kentucky financiers to fix their residences in New York, and do their business through local fighting men.

The Harvard overseers have decided that it is within the power of the athletic committee to settle the question of the continuance of football, and the athletic committee are going to allow its continuance within college grounds. "There is to be no publicity." Only undergraduates and alumni are to be allowed to witness the sacred mysteries of the play, and "there will be no passes for newspaper reporters." Telegraph or telephone wires will not be allowed on the field, news about the eleven is to be "circulated privately" alone, and "newspaper reasoning from wrong premises, and especially unwarranted puffing and other personal mention of players," are to be rigidly prevented. These proposals betray a lamentable ignorance of both the generous football youth of our colleges and the newspapers. Publicity and puffing and glory are what have made "the game" the great thing it is, and if the players are to contest in secret, for an amount of gate-money that will look more like a missionary collection than the President's salary, with no howling mobs to cheer them on to bloody deeds, the charm of football will disappear for self-respecting students. But the worst blunder refers to the newspapers. Are the overseers aware of the job they have on hand in undertaking to prevent the newspapers from "reasoning from wrong premises"? And do they expect to keep out reporters simply by withholding passes? Most of the football reporters are college men, who would have no difficulty in getting in under the new regulations, and the lurid nature of their accounts would only be heightened by the attempt to curtail their rights. Then as regards keeping players' portraits out of the daily press, have the overseers considered the resources of a well-equipped illustrated daily? Last year's pictures of the intellectual Hinkey will do perfectly well for this year's Brewer, or, if the worst comes, a little dressing up of the Marquis of Castellane's picture will make him pass for a raw-head and bloody-bones football hero. Idlest of all is it to expect that Yale spirit will consent to play football after the Miss Nancy style proposed by the Harvard overseers. It begins to look, in fact, as if those gentlemen had chosen to kill the game by making it ridiculous.

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THE SILVER PROPAGANDA.

Signs multiply in all parts of the country that the advocates of free silver coinage have organized a most comprehensive scheme for pushing their views upon the attention of the public and making proselytes. That no State is considered too strongly committed to the cause of sound money to be a hopeless field is illustrated by the fact that Mr. Charles Heber Clark, secretary of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia, went to Harrisburg last week to make a plea before the members of the Pennsylvania Legislature, as the representative of those high-tariff Republicans in the stronghold of protectionism who are ready to follow the lead of Don Cameron, and give that champion of free coinage another term in the United States Senate. The tone of this plea is sufficiently shown by the closing passage:

"This is a question which you can help to answer, and I trust that you will be impelled to send to this nation some message that the great commonwealth that has always been in the very front as the champion of American protection as against British free trade, will still hold that place in the contest between British gold monometallism and that bimetallism which was introduced to our political system by the great men who set up the pillars of the republic."

The recent recommendation by "the American Bimetallic party" of the immediate organization of all who believe in its views is already being followed. A fortnight ago, some four hundred persons, hitherto Democrats, Republicans, and Populists, met at Athens, Ala., and organized the Central Alabama Silver Club. The State commissioner of agriculture, who is a Democrat, offered a resolution to carry on the fight for silver within party lines, but it was overwhelmingly defeated, and in its stead a declaration was unanimously made pledging those present "to support and in 1896 to vote only for the party platform and candidates, national, State, and county, in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of legal-tender silver and gold on equal terms, at 16 to 1, regardless of all past, present, or future political affiliation on other matters." Committees were appointed to organize similar clubs throughout the State.

Another feature of the propaganda is the attempt now making to commit the Democrats of Illinois to the support of free coinage by the unprecedented step of holding a State convention in June of one year to decide what position the party shall take in a campaign for an election that will not be held until November of the following year. The chairman of the State central committee has publicly declared that he is convinced that 90 per cent. of the Democrats of the State outside of Chicago are favorable to "free and unlimited coinage of silver, at the ratio of sixteen to one, without waiting for the action of any foreign government," that he himself is in favor of this policy, and that the party machinery will be used to secure its endorsement at the snap convention.

The free-coinage men have also opened a campaign for the circulation of silver literature on a great scale. They are already flooding the West with copies of 'Coin's Financial School,' and this is only the beginning of their efforts. Gov. Richards of Montana has called a conference, to which the Governors of all the silver-producing States are asked to send delegates, to meet at Salt Lake City next month to inaugurate an "educational campaign on the silver question, the intention being to place bimetallic literature in the hands of voters throughout the Union."

The friends of sound money have every reason to rejoice over such evidence that the silver-men are going to make an open and straightforward fight all over the country. A sharp division between those who want an honest dollar and those who do not is on all accounts to be desired. A year's discussion of the principles that enter into this question is the best possible preparation of the public mind for the Presidential campaign of 1896.

Of course there must be, and will be, as vigorous a campaign for sound money as has been started against it. The work of educating the people must be prosecuted as thoroughly as that of hoodwinking them. Sound-money clubs must be organized, pamphlets laying down the right financial doctrine must be circulated, speakers who can expose the fallacies of the silver-men must be put in the field, particularly in the West and South.

No student of our political history can doubt the result of such an appeal to the people. One's memory need not extend further back than twenty years to find proof that the advocates of sound money will always win when they make a determined fight. The Indianapolis *Journal*, which is the most influential Republican organ in Indiana, is vigorously opposing what it styles "the free-coinage scheme of the bonanza mine-owners," because it "believes profoundly that the free coinage of silver by the United States alone would put this country on a silver basis, drive the stock of gold abroad or make it merchandise, and create a panic such as this country has not witnessed since 1837." The editor of the *Journal* has recently received two or three postal cards from readers who tell him that his paper is not in accord with the majority of the Republican party in opposing free coinage. He makes a very effective reply to such protests by this appeal to history:

"The *Journal* has been through one contest in Indiana for sound money. From first to last it fought the greenback and fiat-money lunacy when it was sweeping the State, and when nearly every Indiana Republican in Congress voted to repeal the resumption act. Then angry appeals and abuse came in every mail from men who are now ashamed that they were ever so far beside themselves as to oppose the resumption of specie payments, which more than doubled the money of the country."

The sound-money men of the country only need to make the same kind of a fight against the free-coinage craze from now until the next Presidential election in order to win an equally complete victory.

AN AMERICAN PROTECTORATE.

It is clear that the Lodge theory of a United States protectorate over this hemisphere has not been adopted by the Government at Washington. His view was, it will be remembered, that Great Britain might properly enough demand an indemnity from Nicaragua for injuries inflicted, but that she could not be allowed to collect it. International law admitted the right to claim, but the shade of James Monroe interposed a ghostly hand to prevent enforcement of the claim. But it appears that Gresham, probably emboldened by Lodge's temporary absence from Washington, has disavowed this idea, and told the English Foreign Office to go ahead and get their $75,000 out of Nicaragua the best way they can. Hence the alarming references of the London *Times* to "the justice and good sense of the Americans." Wary and experienced patriots always distrust such international compliments, knowing that they imply the success of foreign schemers over our too credulous diplomatists.

We do not suppose that even Lodge was serious in his view of an American protectorate. Certainly no man with the responsibilities of directing foreign affairs upon him could look upon any such doctrine without amazement. It implies that the countries of South America may be as insolent or lawless or reckless in their dealings with any European Power as they please, and that our Government will always interfere to prevent them from being punished in any way whatever. What the effect of such a monstrous principle, if once established, would be upon the class of men in office in South America, can easily be imagined. They would be protected against the consequences of their own acts. They would not need to pay their debts, or to observe international courtesies or obligations, and could count upon the United States to prevent their being forced to make either apology or reparation. The position in which it would put this country would be intolerable. We should be in the situation of a foolish old uncle allowing a scapegrace nephew the luxury of doing exactly what he pleased, without any danger of ever being called to book for debts or debauchery.

The duties of nations exercising a protectorate over certain portions of the earth's surface are not clearly defined and are still the subject of discussion. Prof. Westlake devotes a good part of his last volume to the matter, which has assumed no little importance in connection with the partition of Africa among the European Powers. Many things about protectorates and "spheres of influence" remain unsettled, but no jurist or statesman or man in his senses supposes that there can be a protectorate without responsibilities. Yet the Lodge idea is that we can be protectors without any obligations whatever. If Great Britain claims an indemnity from Nicaragua, or Germany from Venezuela, we must cry

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"Hands off! America is for Americans." But if Downing Street then says, "Very well, keep your protégés in order, and pay their debts yourself if you won't allow us to collect our dues," we are to assume a surprised and pained air, and talk deprecatingly of the sovereignty and independence of the South American nations, with which we could not for a moment think of interfering.

Such international effrontery no public man would be equal to off the stump, nor would he be, we should hope, to the impudence of denying the right of other countries to apply the same rule to South America that we follow ourselves. When we have a claim, we set about enforcing it. American citizens have had claims against Venezuela pending since 1871, on account of some steamboats of theirs held in the Orinoco by revolutionists. These claims were taken up by the State Department, but negotiations dragged, and finally, in 1890, Congress passed a joint resolution authorizing the President to collect the money by force, if necessary. Happily, force was not necessary, as a mixed commission has since passed on the claims and made an award of $141,000, which Venezuela will now meekly pay over. But the spectacle of the United States forbidding England to do what they themselves were ready enthusiastically to do five years ago, would be too much for anybody but those sad and sincere men, without a ray of humor, who are known as Jingoes.

The effect of this wild notion may be observed in operation in South America in two ways. In proud and jealous countries, like Chili and Argentina, it produces a distinctly hostile feeling. They do not want to be protected or patronized. In the weaker republics, like Venezuela and Nicaragua, it arouses a vague belief that the United States are bound to stand by them in all their quarrels with European Powers, right or wrong. Venezuela, it is reported, is going to declare war against Great Britain as a result of the Guiana dispute, and to look to this country to see that she is not allowed to be spanked. This is certainly deplorable, both for the South Americans and for ourselves. As for Europeans, in so far as they take the talk of our Jingo Senators seriously, they are both puzzled and exasperated by it. What they see clearly, however, and say with sufficient positiveness, is that the fast-and-loose protectorate over this hemisphere asserted in some quarters is thoroughly impossible if the world is to live in peace. Their attitude was well expressed by the London *Economist* of March 23, when it said:

> "It is needless to say that there is no Power in Europe so great that it does not regret and even dread a dispute with the United States, but still it is possible to carry deference too far, and sooner or later these recurring incidents will lead to regrettable complications. Europe, as a whole, may even be compelled to ask the Government at Washington whether it does or does not claim any especial rights within North and South America and Hawaii, and if so, what these rights are. Does the Union claim to be the protector, in the modern sense, of Spanish and Portuguese America; or does it regard all the Powers within those limits as its dependent allies? In either case, does it acknowledge itself to be in any sense answerable for their conduct?"

WESTERN REBUKES OF EASTERN FILIBUSTERS.

It must have been generally remarked that the wildest talk in favor of the annexation policy comes from Eastern Senators. Frye, Lodge, and Platt, all of whom during the last few weeks have been shrieking that the United States ought without delay to begin grabbing territory in different parts of the world, are representatives of New England Republicanism—that Republicanism which in the first national convention of the party supported with enthusiasm the declaration in the platform that "the highwayman's plea, that 'might makes right,' was in every respect unworthy of American diplomacy, and would bring shame and dishonor upon any government or people that gave it their sanction."

Time enough has now elapsed for public sentiment throughout the country regarding the proposed revival of the old "highwayman" policy to find expression. It is an interesting fact that, while many New England journals have kept silent or even endorsed the outbreaks of the Maine, Massachusetts, and Connecticut Senators, earnest protests against their annexation schemes have been made by representative party journals in the West.

The Milwaukee *Sentinel*, which is the chief Republican newspaper in Wisconsin, opens an article on "The Annexationists" by calling attention to what Mr. Bryce says, in the new chapter on "The Home of the Nation" in the last edition of his 'American Commonwealth,' on the immense advantages that Nature has given this country by reason of its geographical position:

> "Severing its home by a wide ocean from the Old World of Europe on the east, and by a still wider one from the half-old, half-new world of Asia and Australasia on the west, she has made the nation sovereign of its own fortunes. It need fear no attacks nor even any pressure from the military and naval Powers of the eastern hemisphere, and it has little temptation to dissipate its strength in contests with them. It has no doubt a strong neighbor on the north, but a friendly one, linked by many ties of interest as well as kindred, and not likely ever to become threatening. It had on the south neighbors who might have been dangerous, but fortune favored it by making one of them hopelessly weak, and obliging the other, strong as she was, to quit possession at a critical moment. Thus it is left to itself as no great state has ever yet been in the world; thus its citizens enjoy an opportunity never before granted to a nation, of making their country what they will to have it."

With a merited sneer at such demagogues as Lodge, the *Sentinel* admits that "perhaps the more resolute spirits among the gentlemen who wish this country to annex Hawaii, Cuba, and other islands will see in Mr. Bryce's words nothing but a crafty attempt to further the interests of Great Britain by pretending that it is advantageous to the United States to keep itself isolated; and Mr. Bryce, in their eyes, may be only a subtle and insinuating British agent, who has been hired to use his influence against the annexation of territory by this country." But the Wisconsin editor is of opinion that nobody whose judgment is worth anything will doubt that Mr. Bryce is still, as he always has been, an exceptionally intelligent, well-informed, and disinterested friend of the United States; and he considers the passage above quoted "especially worth reading at this time, when Americans who ought to know better are effervescing with a desire to annex a few half-civilized communities."

The Omaha *Bee*, in an article entitled "Unwise Counsellors," points out that the utterances of Frye, Lodge, and Platt show "a spirit distinctly hostile to the established principles and policy of the nation, which, if permitted to grow until it takes possession of the people, cannot fail to involve us in grave and serious complications and conflicts." The *Bee* calls attention to the advantages that we now enjoy by virtue of our situation, and shows that, if we depart from our traditional policy and begin gathering in all the territory we can lay our hands on, as advised by the New England highwaymen, "we should not long enjoy the freedom from aggression on the part of other nations that our isolated position has given us." "Let this country enter upon such a course as these Senators suggest," it adds, "and it would not be long before we should have to reckon with the rest of the world, perhaps united against us."

These patriotic Western editors expose the demagogism of the Fryes, Lodges, and Platts most effectively when they point out that we have quite enough on our hands in governing the territory we now have. "It is hard to understand," says the *Sentinel*, "this desire to increase the troubles we have by adding others which we know not of"; and it proceeds to give this much-needed advice to the New England demagogues:

> "An American who wishes to be patriotic would be better employed in trying to get men of sense and integrity nominated for aldermen in his ward, in trying to give his city clean streets and fine public buildings, in spreading information about money, in tackling any of the problems which the country must settle. This kind of employment is not so spectacular as preaching the need of territorial acquisition, and not so exciting for the preacher, but it deserves to attract men who have energy and hard heads. We have an opportunity, as Mr. Bryce says, of making this country what we wish to have it. Some of us are in danger of neglecting this opportunity through a desire to borrow trouble from abroad."

The Western editors do not believe that at present any considerable body of the American people sympathizes with the views of those who think that this country ought to reach out for new territory on every hand. The *Bee* points out that such a policy involves the building of an enormous navy, the maintenance of a great standing army, and the reconstruction of the machinery of the home Gov-

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ernment; and these are things which it feels "confident the great majority of the American people do not desire." At the same time, as a strong effort is making to impress these views upon the people, the Omaha editor holds that "the sooner their dangerous nature is pointed out, the better."

Politics is notoriously full of surprises, but it has seldom shown a greater than when that section which has always prided itself upon its superior morality, as illustrated in its traditional hostility to filibustering, suddenly breaks forth, through its chosen representatives in the Senate, as the advocate of the "highwayman" policy, and then is properly taken to task for its unpatriotic attitude by a younger section, which reminds New England that the true grandeur of nations is not to be found in spectacular conquests of territory, but in the more prosaic work of solving the great problems that already tax the energies of this country.

A NEGLECTED INCIDENT IN THE LIFE OF DR. FRANKLIN.

PHILADELPHIA, April 9, 1895.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN paid a visit to Germany in the year 1766, which appears to have been almost entirely neglected by his biographers, and yet it is of interest from many points of view. In a letter to his wife dated London, June 13, 1766 (printed in Sparks's 'Works of Franklin,' vol. vii., p. 320), he wrote: "To morrow I set out with my friend Dr. Pringle (now Sir John) on a journey to Pyrmont, where he goes to drink the waters. . . . We must be back at farthest in eight weeks. . . . I propose to leave him in Pyrmont and visit some of the principal cities nearest to it, and call for him again when the time for our return draws nigh." That he actually went to the baths with Pringle we have satisfactory evidence in the Pyrmont *Brunnenarchiv*, published in Berlin in 1782, which contains a list of the guests at Pyrmont from 1752, and which, under the year 1766, contains the entry: "Leibmedicus Ritter Pringle aus London und Dr. Franklin aus Pennsylvanien, kommt aus London."

Very few references to this trip occur in his correspondence or elsewhere. It was in the midst of a very exciting period of Franklin's life, which may account for the fact that he makes such small mention of the journey himself; but the few times he mentions it, he certainly shows that he enjoyed it very much, and there is various evidence from German sources pointing to the fact that his visit was regarded as a very important and interesting event in the annals of Goettingen.

The exact date of Franklin's visit to Goettingen is fortunately preserved for us in the reports of the Goettingen Academy of Sciences. In the one hundred and tenth issue of the *Goettinger Anzeigen*, bearing date of September 13, 1766, the statement is made that the session of the Royal Society of Sciences held on the 19th of the preceding July was more impressive than usual. "The two famous English scholars, the Royal physician, Mr. Pringle, and Mr. Benjamin Franklin, from Pennsylvania, who happened to be at that time in Goettingen on a trip through Germany, took their seats as members of the Society." The same periodical, in its issue of September 27, 1766, says that Pringle and Franklin visited Mr. Hartmann in Hanover in order to see his apparatus for strong electrical experiments. Sir John Pringle, in a letter dated London, September 6, 1766, to Professor Michaelis of Goettingen, thanks him for the courtesies which he and Dr. Franklin had received from him on occasion of their visit to that city. In a letter dated June 2, 1769, to the same gentleman, Pringle apologizes to him for some extraordinary statements which Franklin had made during their conversation in Goettingen in 1766, in regard to the enormous size of the Patagonians, explaining that he had been misled by the reports of sailors.

During this visit at Goettingen, Professor Achenwall held a conversation with Franklin on the condition of the American colonies. He wrote out careful notes of this interview, and published them subsequently in the *Hannoversches Magazin* in the seventeenth, eighteenth, nineteenth, thirty-first, and thirty-second issues—the first bearing date of February 27, 1767, and the last April 20, 1767—under the title of "Some Remarks upon North America and the Colonies of Great Britain in that Continent, from a Personal Interview with Dr. Franklin." He remarks in his closing note that he found Dr. Franklin very willing indeed to answer all his questions, and not only that, but to go much further and give him all the information he could in regard to matters in the New World. He also calls attention to the fact, in this foot-note, that when the British colonies felt themselves aggrieved by the Stamp Act, they showed almost exactly the same temper and mode of thought as the Corcyreans displayed towards their mother country, Corinth, on a somewhat similar occasion. (See Thucydides i., 34, etc.)

The report of this interview with Dr. Franklin was republished subsequently in various forms: In Koehler's (J. T.) 'Sammlung neuer Reisebeschreibungen aus fremden Sprachen,' Goettingen and Gotha, 1767-69; also, a separate edition entitled 'Herrn Hofrath Achenwalls in Goettingen Anmerkungen über Nord Amerika und über dasige grosbritannische Colonien aus mündlichen Nachrichten des Herrn Dr. Franklin,' Frankfort and Leipzig, 1769; also, at Helmstedt in 1777. The latter edition was accompanied by an appendix consisting of a translation of John Wesley's address to his brethren and countrymen in the American colonies. There seems to have been also a Dutch translation of this interview published at Utrecht in 1778.

The book attracted considerable attention; to judge from these frequent reprints; though, so far as I am able to learn, no mention of it is made by any of Franklin's biographers or bibliographers, with one exception, and he evidently knew nothing beyond its bare title. Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in his Franklin Bibliography (a most valuable work, by the way), mentions it, but confuses it with a supposed translation of 'The Examination in Parliament,' published by Almon in London in 1766. He says in the Bibliography (page 133), under the title of 'Examination in Parliament,' that this work was reprinted several times in German, and gives the three titles which are cited above. It is evident that Mr. Ford had never seen any one of these pamphlets, or he could not have fallen into such a serious mistake. Not only do the pamphlets above mentioned treat of an entirely different subject, but they had no relation whatever to the 'Examination in Parliament,' nor, so far as I have been able to ascertain, is any mention made in any one of them of the fact that Dr. Franklin had been examined before Parliament. The Frankfort and Leipzig edition of 1769 is in the Philadelphia Library; the Koehler edition is reported by Sabin to be in the Harvard College Library, and the Helmstedt edition, he states, is in the Massachusetts Historical Society's Library. Copies of the Koehler edition and of the Helmstedt edition are to be found in the British Museum, and the Leipzig edition of 1769 is also in the British Museum catalogue, but the attendants were unable to find it when I called for it.

The copy in the Philadelphia Library contains 94 pages, 12mo, and discusses various topics relating to the British Colonies. The style of composition bears out the statement of the author, that it is essentially a series of answers to questions which he propounded in regard to the Indians, to the products of the country, its agriculture, manufactures and commerce, education, government, monetary and tax systems, law of succession, system of land-holding, slavery, redemptioners, religion, towns and cities, etc. The account of the paper money issued in Pennsylvania would of itself be ample evidence that this pamphlet rested upon statements of Franklin, as the account is very similar to that which he gives in other places.

Koehler, in his edition, evidently regards it as very necessary to correct some of Dr. Franklin's statements about the colonies, on the basis of Meyer Roberts's account of his travels in America, and he adds a number of foot-notes which are interesting, as he plainly makes the attempt to discredit Franklin's testimony. He accuses Franklin of great carelessness in his statements to Prof. Achenwall, and unfairness towards other colonies than Pennsylvania. He states, for example, that Franklin had said that a college had been established in Boston, when every one knew that it was at Cambridge, six miles from Boston! Franklin spoke, moreover, of the educational institutions of Pennsylvania as though they were the only ones in the colonies, whereas many other colonies had just as good, and probably better—notably, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey. Franklin speaks of the colonists paying tribute to the Iroquois Indians in the shape of gifts; Koehler remarks that this is true probably only of the Pennsylvanians—"mostly Quakers, whom their religion makes cowards."

In speaking of the difficulties in Pennsylvania between the Government and the colonists, which Franklin had described in some detail, Koehler says: "The Pennsylvanians are a 'sort of little rebels' who are violating in a criminal way the rights and dignities of their indisputable superiors, as well as the laws of nations; these people have become insolent through their too quickly acquired wealth, and deserve the severest punishment, because they give other subjects a bad example." He is not even satisfied with Franklin's description of how bear-roast is prepared in Pennsylvania. For, although he cannot deny that Franklin's description is true, still he says they do this much better in Poland, where they boil the claws in Burgundy, and thus make a most sâvory morsel.

In this interview with Achenwall, Franklin claims the credit for the establishment of the college in Philadelphia in 1749 (now the University of Pennsylvania). He declared, among other things, that the stories of the wealth of Mexico and its civilization were all a myth. "The Indians," he declared, "were barbarians; how could they build such cities as the Spaniards described?"

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More than a year after his return to England, Dr. Franklin received a letter from Johann Friedrich Hartmann, dated the Calends of October, 1767, in which the writer says that he shall always remember the time when he was privileged to talk with Franklin on the occasion of his visit to Hanover. He also states that the Prince of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt had sent a special messenger to Goettingen to salute Franklin; but the messenger got to Goettingen the very day Franklin left and too late to see him (printed in Sparks, vol. vii., p. 326). This Hartmann was a very prominent physician in Hanover, head of the royal hospital, and well known to scholars of that day for his interest in electrical investigations.

A further reference to this visit of Franklin's to Goettingen is found in Johann Stephen Pütter's 'Selbstbiographie' (2 vols., Goettingen, 1798, pp. 490 and 491). Pütter there mentions the pleasure which he derived from a visit of the famous Franklin and his equally famous English companion, Dr. Pringle, then President of the Royal Academy of Sciences at London. He says that Franklin was at that time working on the plan of the establishment of an American university at Philadelphia, and that was one of the reasons which led to his visit to Goettingen. Although he was not able to speak German, he seemed to be glad to get a copy of Pütter's 'History of the University,' and he talked with him and others about its contents. "I had the pleasure," Pütter remarks, "of having these gentlemen at my house one afternoon and evening, in company with other scholars in Goettingen. My friend Achenwall utilized this opportunity to get exact information from my guest as to the condition of the American Colonies, and their relation to the mother country; he subsequently published a part of this information in the *Hannoversches Magazin*. What Franklin said at that time could almost be regarded as the exact prophecy of the events which afterwards took place in that quarter of the world."

In Von Schlözer's Life, by his son, published at Leipzig in 1828, the author mentions that his father, on occasion of a visit to Hanover in April, 1766, dined at Münchhausen's along with the celebrated American, Dr. Franklin. He adds that nothing remarkable occurred on this occasion, except that Dr. Franklin kept his spectacles on during the entire meal—evidently looking upon this much as he would have done on Franklin's keeping on his hat.

In the Autobiography of Prof. Michaelis, published at Leipzig in 1793, he mentions having met Franklin in the summer of 1766, and he also gives us an account of what he calls an important conversation that he held with Franklin on one occasion at table.

"As he was dining at my house, we talked much about America; about the Indians; the rapid growth of the English Colonies; their population; their doubling in twenty-five years, etc., and I remarked that when I was in London in 1741 I had taken occasion to study pretty carefully the condition of these colonies from English books and reports, and I had come to the conclusion, which I expressed at that time to various people, that the colonies would ere long become independent. They laughed at me at that time; but I said I was of the same opinion still. Franklin thereupon answered, with his earnest, significant and shrewd expression, that I was entirely mistaken; the Americans had a great love for their mother country. I replied, that might be so, but the mighty sweep of interest would soon work very strong and outweigh or destroy the love for the mother country. He could not deny that this might be true, but he said their revolt would still be impossible, for every important place in the colonies, including Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, lay exposed to the English fleets. Boston could easily be destroyed by a bombardment; to this, of course, I could not reply. I did not think, at the time, that I was talking with a man who a few years later was destined to play such a prominent part in the fulfilment of my prophecies. When the disturbances actually broke out, I watched with great interest for the beginning of the bombardment of Boston, but things took an entirely different course."

The editor of the Autobiography of Michaelis remarks in a foot-note that he had had the opportunity, as a student at Goettingen, of seeing Franklin and Pringle, who had dropped into the Goettingen Library, and that they had pleased him much better than the famous Lessing, who was also stopping at that time in Goettingen. "These Englishmen, who are ordinarily reputed to be very distant in their manners, were exceedingly pleasant and condescending; Lessing, on the contrary, was distant and contemptuous."

EDMUND J. JAMES.

BROC'S LIFE UNDER THE FIRST EMPIRE.

PARIS, March 28, 1895.

M. DE BROC is the author of two volumes on 'France under the Old Régime,' which gave a clear account of the administration of the French provinces before the Revolution, and of the old provincial life. The interest I felt in reading this work, which was full of data and of documents scattered in a number of volumes, often difficult to find, induced me to read also a new volume by M. de Broc which has just appeared, 'La Vie en France sous le Premier Empire.' Why did he not write simply, 'La France sous le Premier Empire' as he did 'La France sous l'Ancien Régime'? "Life in France" means everything and nothing. In going over the volume I saw that M. de Broc intended to give to his new work a sort of dramatic life, with the help of the innumerable documents which we now possess on the period of the Empire. He meant to be more anecdotic, and it is perhaps a pity, for we know all his anecdotes, and I, for my part, expected a more general and systematic survey of the institutions of France as they were left us by Napoleon. For, if Napoleon's immense empire was but an empty dream, if he left the frontiers of France just as he found them, after having conquered nearly the whole of Europe, he was more successful as a lawgiver. "He created," as M. de Broc says, "institutions which have outlived himself and which are still flourishing." He made many laws which have not escaped criticism, but which nobody has yet undone. Neither monarchies nor republics have effaced their mark. . . . If the institutions of the First Consul and of the Emperor have such profound roots, it must be because they corresponded to the needs of the new France and were adapted to its manners. If they had been only the instrument of a reign, they would not have survived it."

In order to judge Napoleon well we must always see in him the First Consul, the inspirer of the Code Civil (so long called Code Napoléon) and author of the Concordat. One of the framers of the Code Civil, who died very old, told a friend of mine, who repeated it to me, that in the discussions which took place in the Council of State, at the time of the framing of the Code Civil, Napoleon, who presided as First Consul, took an active part in the deliberations, and always astonished the old *parlementaires* and jurists who were members of the Council by what they called between themselves his Jacobin opinions. Montalembert used to call the Code Civil the code of despotism. Napoleon would not tolerate testamentary freedom—he would have all children treated alike; and the part of which a father can freely dispose—what is called the *quotité disponible*—was reduced under his inspiration to a *part d'enfant*: that is to say, if there are two children, the father can dispose of a third of his fortune; if there are three, of a fourth; if there are four, of a fifth, and so on.

"You French," said Napoleon one day to Mme. de Rémusat, "care for nothing seriously except equality. And you would all renounce it willingly if you could each of you flatter yourself with the idea of being the first. . . . It is necessary to give to each man the hope of rising . . . and to keep your vanities at work. The severity of a republican government would have bored you to death. What made the Revolution? Vanity. And what will end it? Vanity. Liberty is a mere pretext."

The Code Civil is the code of that perfect equality which Napoleon thought to be the dominant passion of the French people. Its administrative expression must be found in our centralization, the most complete and in one sense perfect centralization to be found in the present or in the past. This centralization is the common work of the Revolution and of Napoleon; it began with the destruction of the old provinces and the creation of the departments. The province had its own life, the department is an arbitrary geographical unity; the First Consul had as many proconsuls as there were departments. I once asked a friend of mine who had been prefect in several great departments, if he did not dislike being sent from one place to another, and if he did not find these changes too laborious. "Not in the least," said he; "the prefect is everywhere the prefect; he finds everywhere the famous decree of Messidor, which is still in force, and which regulates precedence among all the functionaries, civil or military—the prefect, the bishops, the presidents of the law courts, the generals, etc.; he finds everywhere the same bureaux of the prefecture, where all business is classified and annotated; he has to go through the same rounds of visits for the *conseil de révision*—that is, the examination of the conscript soldiers; he has to preside at the same annual meetings of the councils-general; he has the same legal advisers." Wherever he goes, he is the representative of the State, whether the State be republican, imperialist, or monarchical. He is part of a great engine which is worked in Paris. He is not a man, he is a prefect; he has no thoughts but inspired thoughts, no will but an impersonal will. He comes to-day, he disappears to-morrow. He is all the more formidable because he is nobody.

This great machine of centralization was so minutely described by Taine that M. de Broc could not improve upon his description. At various times attempts have been made to secure decentralization, not only administrative, but intellectual also, if I may so express myself. Under the Second Empire, a certain number of gentlemen in Lorraine made an effort in this direction; they are still remembered under the name of the "school of Nancy." At present there are a few men who favor the creation of provincial universities, to play in France a part similar to that played in Germany by so many independent universities, which are distinct focuses of intellect. I find in some Souvenirs (now in process of publication) of Madame Octave Feuillet, the widow of a novelist who was a member of the French Academy, and who had some celebrity in the days of the Second Empire, an extract from

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a letter which Feuillet addressed to Napoleon III. in January, 1867:

"One word more, Sire. Let the Emperor allow me to confide to him an idea which oppresses me, and which reflection fortifies every day. I think that the terrible instability of government in France is caused not alone by the political agitations of the country; I believe that the extreme centralization of the Parisian dictatorship has much to do with it. It is difficult for the Emperor to judge exactly the degree of mortal inertia into which the province has fallen. As the result of centralization, the whole of France has become the servile faubourg of Paris. The supremacy of Paris has no counterpoise, and, in every crisis, in each sudden movement. the head threatens to give the impulse to the body. . . . An almost incredible fact, Sire, is the want of men in the province. In a department like mine, which has 600,000 inhabitants [he wrote from the Manche], not one Deputy can be found. The provincial life is so reduced, so null, that it can neither form intellects nor harden characters. The France of '89 was much more fruitful.

"Must we believe, Sire, that centralization, excellent as a remedy and a means, is bad as a régime; that, in this sense, the Revolution went too far? Is not the chief work of centralization, French unity, accomplished for ever? And, at any rate, is not the chance of civil wars preferable to the chance of a Commune of Paris? Would it not be time to give to the province—that is to say, to France—under new forms in harmony with the times, life, spring, independence, a distinct activity, the local animation which the former provincial institutions of the old régime spread over the whole surface of the empire?"

The Emperor contented himself with thanking Feuillet for the expression of his "elevated and patriotic views." These spasmodic efforts towards decentralization will probably always be vain; there are material facts which favor centralization, and which act every day with more power and more energy. The railways, the telegraphs, the telephones are powerful agents of centralization; they make, in one sense, each country smaller; the business of every town, every village can easily be carried on in the capital. Paris acts like the brain which orders all the movements of the body. It is a curious fact, however, that, since administrative centralization has been made so easy and so complete, since there is, so to speak, no provincial autonomy left, the history not only of the provinces but of the old cities and the ancient monuments of France is studied with a minuteness and a care which is quite extraordinary. Any book, any pamphlet, any document relating to the old provincial life is sure to find a buyer. I am a constant reader of sale catalogues, and I am very much struck by the care which is now taken by booksellers to collect these pamphlets and documents. The provincial archives are now kept as well as our great libraries, and I remember the time when they were shamefully neglected.

There is one domain in which Napoleon met with a moral force stronger than his own. He was at heart of the opinion of the kings and princes of the sixteenth century. He made the Concordat, and signed a treaty of alliance with the Church; but he had no respect for religious liberty. A mere deist at heart, he considered an established religion as a mere "instrumentum regni." He met with some opposition in his *entourage* when he signed the Concordat.

Constant tells us in his Memoirs that on the day when the new law on public worship was signed, Joseph Bonaparte entered his room with the Consul Cambacérès.

"'Well,' said the First Consul to Cambacérès, 'we are going to mass. What do people think of it in Paris?' 'Many people,' said Cambacérès, 'intend to go to the first representation, and to hiss the play if they don't find it amusing.' 'If anybody dares to hiss, I will have him thrown out by my consular guard.' 'But if the grenadiers hiss like the others?' 'No fear of it. My old moustaches will go to Notre Dame as they did to the mosque in Cairo. They will look at me, and when they see their general behave gravely and decently, they will say, It is the order of the day.' 'I am afraid,' said Joseph Bonaparte, 'that the generals will not be so yielding. I have just left Augereau inveighing against what he calls your *capucinades*.' 'Bah! Augereau is a noisy fellow, and if he has some little imbecile of a cousin, he will put him in a seminary and ask me to make him an almoner.'"

Bonaparte well knew that the immense majority of the nation would see with satisfaction the reopening of the churches; but he intended to govern the clergy despotically. All the bishops' mandates were to be submitted to the approbation of his prefect, whether they were Catholics, Protestants, or Jews. The episcopate was reduced to a perfect slavery; the despotism of the Emperor and his agents was equalled only by the servility of some of the bishops. The curate became a minister of the imperial rule; he was forced to preach for the conscription, to read the bulletins of the Grand Army. (These ceased to be read after 1805.) I have before my eyes a copy of the catechism which was used in the churches of the French Empire, with the approbation of Cardinal Caprara, the Papal legate. It was used from 1806 to 1814. The seventh lesson made this commentary on the fourth commandment:

"What are the duties of Christians towards the princes who govern them, and what are particularly our duties towards Napoleon I., our Emperor? Christians owe to the princes who govern them, and particularly to Napoleon I., our Emperor, their love, their respect, their obedience, their fidelity, military service. . . . To honor and serve our Emperor is to honor and to serve God.—What is to be thought of those who would not fulfil their duties toward the Emperor? According to the Apostle Saint Paul, they would resist the order established by God himself and would deserve eternal damnation."

Though he had been consecrated by the Pope, Napoleon was not long in treating him as a vassal. He took possession of his States, and imprisoned him in France. He took a very practical and realistic view of religion. One of his courtiers, Cardinal Maury, once said to Pasquier: "Well, the Emperor has satisfied the two great needs of his capital: with a good police and a good clergy he is sure to keep it quiet. An archbishop is a prefect of police."

The subject treated by M. de Broc was almost exhausted by Taine. M. de Broc has not the sledge-hammer style of Taine; he is more superficial. I expected to find in his book what is not found in Taine, a lively description of the imperial society. The contact of the old aristocracy, after the emigration, with the new military aristocracy of Napoleon's creation was a fine subject for the political philosopher; but M. de Broc has not analyzed in a wide and philosophical spirit the immense social transformation which took place at the beginning of this century. He has contented himself with putting side by side a number of anecdotes and extracts from memoirs. The impression left by his volume is wanting in clearness and in sharpness.

Correspondence.

THE INCOME TAX.—TWO METHODS OF LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Comparisons may be odious, but they are not always without instruction.

(1.) The existing method. Any one of 356 members of Congress introduces a bill for an income tax; it is referred to a standing committee of seventeen members made up by the Speaker of the House, the selection being based possibly upon some financial reputation of the individuals, but mainly upon party and political considerations, chief among which is the degree of their influence in procuring his election to his office. No member of the committee has even the pretence of representing the Treasury, or the nation, or the public interest, or has any responsibility for or needs to have any knowledge of the administrative effect of any laws which may be passed. Every member represents 1-356th part of the whole country, and is amenable in the first place to the pressure of his own constituents, but in a much greater degree to the necessity of conciliating the other 339-356ths of the House, themselves under hydraulic pressure from the private and party interest in the lobby. The bill as reported, therefore, is not constructed with an eye to the revenue of the Treasury or its effect upon the business of the country, or the possibility of its being put in operation, but solely as to whether it can be passed. The idea of its being subjected to anything like the test of effective debate is too absurd to be worth a moment's attention. The bill has passed both houses, after such tinkering as can be imagined, and is signed by the President, who cannot veto it without incurring the reproach of upsetting the financial system established by the deliberate judgment of Congress. The whole country is in an uproar in trying to understand the provisions of the act, the modes of making returns, the possibility and even the constitutionality of collection. Certain persons combine to bring the question before the Supreme Court, and, pending the decision, the whole subject stands in abeyance beyond the period fixed by law for the collection. Suddenly the Court decides by splitting the act in two in the middle, declaring that one-half the sources aimed at cannot constitutionally be touched, leaving the other half to be applied with an amount of uncertainty, jealousy, and exasperation far outweighing in their disastrous effect upon the public mind any possible benefit to the revenue. Such, up to this date, is the net outcome of the profound wisdom of our present methods of legislation.

(2.) A possible method. Congress may be supposed to have passed a resolution that an income tax is expedient, and called upon the Government to submit a bill for that purpose. The Secretary of the Treasury, in conference with the President and the other members of the Cabinet, has undertaken the task. They know well that their proposals will be subjected to the fiercest criticism, and that to have any chance of success their bill must be workable in its details, and bear unmistakable evidence of having been prepared solely with a view to the protection of the Treasury with the least possible disturbance of or injustice to private interests. Questions of constitutionality would be provided for in advance by submitting points for the decision of the Supreme Court. The bill, thus carefully pre-

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pared, is laid before Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury in person, with an oral exposition of its details. Debate then begins. Members of the Government party will almost be compelled to support it. Those of the other side will have to take great care that their opposition is based upon grounds of public interest, and not upon local and party interests, which would be too dangerous in the face of Cabinet representatives of the whole country. Everything that could be said for and against the bill would be said. If it was finally passed, the country would know its history, that it had been adopted with full deliberation, and would accept it with resignation, if not with pleasure.

If the mass of criticism and amendments was so great as to make the passage of the bill impossible, and of such a kind that the Government would not accept them, the Secretary would withdraw the bill altogether, as it would be better to wait for another session or another Congress than to adopt hasty or reckless legislation.

Besides the direct effect of this course, members would appear before the country individually and in the light of public debate, instead of being lost in the secrecy of the committee rooms, and the people would begin to regain confidence in Congress instead of steadily losing it.

Which of the two methods is most in accord, not merely with common sense, but with the prospect of the future welfare of popular government, of course every thoughtful person will decide for himself. G. B.

Boston, April 13, 1895.

THE ILLINOIS FACTORY LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to suggest that in your article of April 4 on the Illinois factory law you quite misunderstand the purposes and significance of that law. Its purpose was in no way a catering to the labor vote of this State; its significance involved in no sense a success of the labor politicians. It meant simply a first valuable step in the heavy task of giving legislative sanction to the accepted results of modern sanitary and philanthropic science. The propagation of disease in garment-making sweat-shops, the stunting of the race by disease-producing child labor, the unnecessary hazards in dangerous machinery, the race-degeneration through excessive and unhealthy modes of work by females—these are some of the evils which English legislation has already found worth attacking, and which the as yet youthful development of Western manufacturing makes it now possible to remedy with special ease and effectiveness. Such evils and remedies it is which you appear unable to discriminate from the demands for class legislation in favor of manual laborers. There are some of us who, like you, are neither anarchists nor socialists; who, like you, believe neither in a general pampering of certain classes of workers nor in particular in an indiscriminate eight-hour law. But it is a serious disappointment to us to find you taking satisfaction in a decision which involves a standstill in the progress of modern philanthropy. Could you accompany our factory inspector for a week in a tour of the Illinois establishments, you would see enough to wrench your heart-strings, and to turn your sympathies if not your convictions.

After all, is not this matter of bringing constitutional engines to bear something of a farce? Is it not more a matter of personal feelings and preconceived notions than of the legitimate effect of ambiguous constitutional clauses? To illustrate. The Supreme Court in its opinion admits that "the right to contract may be subject to limitations imposed . . . by the demands of public policy or the necessity of protecting the public from fraud or injury," but claims that where this police power is exercised "to secure the public comfort, welfare, or safety, it must appear to be adapted to that end," and that in this legislation about women laborers "there is nothing in the nature of the employment . . . which is in itself unhealthy or unlawful or injurious to the public morals or welfare," that "the mere fact of sex will not justify the Legislature in putting forth the police power of the State for the purpose of limiting her exercise of those rights, unless the court is able to see that there is some fair, just, and reasonable connection between such limitation and public health, safety, or welfare proposed to be secured by it"; that "the court must be able to see that the law has at least in fact some relation to the public health, that the public health is the end actually aimed at, and that it is appropriate and adapted to that end. This we have not been able to see in this law."

Now, here is no real constitutional question. It is simply that the members of the Court "have not been able to see" a conclusion of fact, a purpose which seems apparent on the face of the law, an appropriateness of means that has been approved by physicians and philanthropists the world over, sanctioned by repeated and deliberate English legislation, and twice recommended by the International Association of Factory Inspectors on sanitary grounds. When the question is merely whether the Court is "able to see" a specific sanitary purpose and the adaptability of means to this end, is it not clear that its inability to see what so many qualified persons have seen is, after all, a matter of temperament and preconceived belief, and that it is no victory for great constitutional ideas, but simply for a certain conservatism of thought? Is it not time to cease flattering ourselves as the defenders of imaginary constitutional bulwarks, and to consider whether it is not, after all, mere matter of personal opinion on a social question? This would make us more humble in our attitude and more ready to give a fair consideration to the real issues of such a question. J. H. W.

Chicago, April 8, 1895.

[Our correspondent's points seem to us fully covered by the court's opinion. As this document contains twenty-six pages of concise argument, we have space but to remark that it seems to us not to "misunderstand the purposes and significance" of the law; and that the "purpose" of a Legislature, unless so expressed as to limit the law itself, has nothing to do with the interpretation, still less the constitutionality, of the laws it may enact. Nor have we any contention with the regulation of sweat-shops or dangerous or improper employments. This law was a general one, covering the right of industrial employment of women and their contracts for such employment, and was not limited to sweat-shops; had it been so limited, it might have stood. And the obnoxious section 5 was not avowedly a sanitary, but a sex, restriction. In England the Parliament is supreme; in our country the individual is guaranteed certain rights. But the laws of Illinois provide that "no person shall be precluded or debarred from any occupation, profession, or employment (except military) on account of sex." And under the Constitution of the United States a woman has been held to be a citizen. As such, she has a constitutional right to make her own contracts. If it were constitutional for the Legislature of Illinois to forbid her working more than eight hours, it would be constitutional to forbid her working at all.—Ed. Nation.]

THE NEGRO VOTE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe, in your issue of the 4th inst., that you call attention to the political movement in South Carolina preparatory to the Constitutional Convention, and say that "the 'pacification scheme' has the familiar ante-bellum air of peace at the expense of the colored American."

In justice to the conservatives of this State and to a large proportion of the Tillman faction, allow me to state that when they demand "white supremacy," they demand also "good government and *honest* and *fair* elections" (*vide* address issued by the Conference of February 25). The desire to disfranchise the negro is not due to the fact that he is a negro, but because a very large majority of that race in South Carolina are not qualified to cast an intelligent ballot, and are not fitted, in point of morality or education, to administer the government. I am within the bounds of moderation when I say that probably 90 per cent. of the negro voters of the State vote as they are told to do by the "precinct chairmen," are ignorant of the issues involved, and often ignorant even of the names of the candidates. Under such conditions are we to be criticised for wishing to disfranchise the ignorant part of that population?

I have no desire to go into an extended discussion of the difficulties that confront and perplex us, but I wish to emphasize the fact that there is a strong and growing public sentiment demanding an intelligent and pure ballot, and, with such a large illiterate population in our midst, we must provide such qualification of the suffrage as will insure the preservation of good government, and at the same time provide for honest and pure elections. This is possible only under a government controlled by the Anglo Saxon. We have not forgotten the terrible ordeal through which we passed during the period from 1868 to 1876, when South Carolina was under the domination of negroes and carpet-baggers, nor will we submit to a repetition of such misrule and corruption. The fear of a return to such a condition led us to resort to election methods which were wrong and unjustifiable, and from which honorable men now recoil, and which they are determined must be abandoned.

Men all over the State are loud in their demands for fair elections and justice to all, and are equally outspoken in insisting on the maintenance of the public schools, which do as much to educate the negro as the whites, but which are supported almost entirely by the whites, on whom the burden of taxation falls by rea-

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son of the tax on property for the support of the schools.

The demand for fair elections, which forms such a leading subject of discussion in the present agitation, was anticipated by the introduction last winter by the writer in the Legislature of an election bill embodying the Australian ballot system, and which was advocated by the leading papers of the State, but which, in view of the fact that the Constitutional Convention would deal with the suffrage, was continued to the next session. Under the operation of this bill, all citizens who were qualified would have equal showing and protection in casting their ballots.

In conclusion, let me say that the communication from Hartsville to Col. Dargan, to which you refer, is but the silly ebullition of some crank or fanatic—a communication which is censured by the people of the community and by the press, and which deserves no notice. Col. Dargan is himself fully aware that this is the case, and that though his views are very different from those of most of his white fellow-citizens, he is always accorded a respectful hearing, and can, with perfect impunity, express his opinions as he chooses at any time and at any place in this State.

RICHARD I. MANNING.

WEDGEFIELD, SUMTER CO., S. C., April 8, 1895.

[We have nothing but sympathy for the people of South Carolina in the dilemma which slavery has imposed upon them; at the same time we welcome any evidence that the white conscience revolts against the practices by which the revolution of 1877 has been secured to this day. That this conscience is to be found in the Tillman faction we cannot believe without forfeiting our sense of humor; and the fact that the "Conservatives" have joined hands with that faction in agreeing to disfranchise no white man except for crime, proves that the "color line" serves to still all dissension among the whites, as the appeal to the war spirit and memories served for more than a generation to suppress all reformatory movements in the Republican party. Our correspondent does not disguise the nature of the problem which the Conference undertook to solve, namely, to reconcile "demands for fair elections and justice to all" with inequality of disfranchisement: the whites must always be counted in, the blacks always be counted out in sufficient numbers to insure "white supremacy." It would puzzle a Philadelphia lawyer to frame a device for this juggling from which honorable men would not recoil.

We cannot agree with our correspondent in looking upon the anonymous Hartsville menace of Col. Dargan as that of a crank or fanatic—at least if by that designation the fellow is to be sharply set off from the community in which he lives. Some "Regulators" of Camden, S. C., recently ordered a Northern merchant, Mr. Richard Hallowell of Boston, out of town because he freely visited or conversed with the colored people there, while sojourning for his health. For this "unpleasantness" the leading citizens expressed their regret to Mr. Hallowell in a published letter, not, however, without insinuating that he had no right to associate with any but his own color; but we have not heard that they called a town meeting to denounce the cowardly Regulators, or offered a reward for their discovery by the police. It used to be said that in Connecticut they always kept one member of every pious family unconverted to do their wicked work for them; and, with all respect to our correspondent, we believe that his "cranks" and "fanatics" are a necessary part of any scheme likely to be adopted for maintaining the rule of the minority in South Carolina.—ED. NATION.]

HILL'S WICKED PARTNERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Undoubtedly, as stated in your last number, Senator Hill is "responsible more than any other man for the failure of the court to overthrow the income tax, root and branch"; but are not Senators Hoar and Lodge of this State entitled to share the responsibility and the condemnation for the assistance they rendered to Mr. Hill? J.

BOSTON, April 13, 1895.

TAXATION OF STUDENTS IN GERMANY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of February 28 (p. 167) speaks of the extortionate income and communal taxes which foreign students must pay at Leipzig and other North German universities. As far as Leipzig is concerned there is evidently some mistake. At the office for both state and city taxes, they assure me that a foreign student whose income is from foreign sources is not taxed; and the practice seems to bear their statement out. I have inquired of several foreign students resident here from one to four terms, and from none have taxes of any kind been required. But foreign residents who are not students must pay taxes, I have heard, even on an income from property not in Germany.—Respectfully,

G. M. STRATTON.

LEIPZIG, April 4, 1895.

GRAMMAR-DICTIONARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to Mr. Gardner M. Jones's inquiry in the *Nation* for April 4 about grammar-dictionaries, I may be pardoned for calling attention to the following among the "commoner dictionaries" that contain pretty good synopses of grammar: Millhouse's 'New Pronouncing and Explanatory English-Italian and Italian-English Dictionary' (Trübner); Velazquez's 'Pronouncing Dictionary of the Spanish and English Languages' (Trübner)—otherwise not to be recommended, Bustamente (Christern) being the best; and Helms's 'Neues vollständiges Schwedisch-Deutsch und Deutsch-Schwedisches Wörterbuch,' nebst einem kurzen Abrisse der Formenlehre beider Sprachen' (Leipzig: Otto Holtze, 1887). This last is, of course, not so well known in this country, but in Germany I believe it is the standard, and would serve as a good model for makers of French and German dictionaries for English students. It contains just what Mr. Jones suggests, although not in quite so condensed a form. The *Formenlehre* occupies 20 pages.—Yours truly,

WM. M. STEVENSON, Librarian,
Carnegie Free Library, Allegheny, Pa.

ALLEGHENY, PA., April 9, 1895.

Notes.

IF a sufficient number of subscribers at $1.50 can be secured, the Virginia Historical Society is prepared to publish entire in one volume the Minutes of the Virginia Company of London (1619-1624), heretofore published only in abstracts. The Corresponding Secretary of the Society is Mr. Philip A. Bruce, No. 707 East Franklin Street, Richmond.

Additional announcements by Macmillan & Co. are a uniform edition of the late Sir John Seeley's works, 'Ecce Homo,' 'Natural Religion,' 'The Expansion of England,' and 'Lectures and Essays'; a new edition of Prof. Goldwin Smith's 'Oxford and her Colleges,' photographically illustrated; a new edition of Zangwill's 'Children of the Ghetto'; 'Fishes, Living and Fossil,' an introductory study, by Bashford Dean; 'Agriculture, Practical and Scientific,' by Prof. James Muir of Yorkshire College, Leeds; 'Municipal Home Rule,' by Prof. Frank J. Goodnow of Columbia College; 'Essays in Taxation,' by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia; 'Social Theology,' by President Hyde of Bowdoin; and a story, 'An Experiment in Altruism.'

We defer till the completion of the work a more extended notice of the new and revised edition of Mr. Henry E. Watts's translation of Don Quixote, of which the first volume has just appeared (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). The entire work will contain five volumes, of which four will be devoted to the translation and notes, and the fifth will be a new and enlarged Biography of Cervantes, with a Bibliography of his works. The rate of issue is to be a volume a month.

The second edition of H. D. Minot's 'Land-birds and Game-birds of New England,' edited by William Brewster, is a handsome volume from the Riverside Press of Cambridge. This work originally appeared in 1876, and we have nothing to add to our extended notice of it in that year, except praise for the manner in which Mr. Brewster has handled his youthful author. Mr. Minot is the youngest ornithologist whose writings have acquired repute. He was born in 1859, and at his death by a railroad accident in 1890 was the youngest railroad president in the United States. Mr. Brewster has shown great tact and discretion in dealing with the author's peculiarities. It was no easy task to give this book the necessary critical annotation, with due regard to those idiosyncrasies which constitute its chief claim to perpetuity. Minot's work has certainly taken a new lease of life at Mr. Brewster's hands, and, twenty years hence, may be found to have achieved a permanent place in the literature of the subject.

'The Book of the Rose,' by Rev. A. Foster-Melliar (Macmillan), is not a poem or a romance, as one might perhaps imagine from the title, but is a treatise on the cultivation of roses, written confessedly "for enthusiasts, for those who make a regular hobby of their roses, and think of them as fondly and almost as fully in January as in June." Some two hundred pages are given to the methods of cultivation, including the minutest instructions for preparing the "blooms" for competitive exhibition,

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and one hundred pages to "Manners and Customs," or the author's judgment on the excellences and deficiencies of many kinds of roses. The concluding chapters are on "Selections" (of the best roses in each class), and a "Calendar of Operations" for each month in the year. The book is illustrated with many good figures from photographs, and, though here and there the language is rather technical, it is interesting even to the general reader, while to one who desires to raise fine roses for his own enjoyment, or for exhibition, it must prove an invaluable guide. The author has taken many first prizes, and he tells honestly how he won them—and how he lost others.

Gen. H. V. Boynton, the historiographer of the Chickamauga Commission, has published an historical guide to that National Military Park (Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co.). The handsome volume contains the topographical description of the park and a guide to the more important points. It has also a full historical description of the battles of Chickamauga, Chattanooga, and Missionary Ridge, in which, with good judgment, an impartial statement is compiled from the records of both armies, giving the things about which there is general agreement. The maps are excellently drawn, though necessarily on a small scale. The other illustrations are half-tone reproductions of photographs of landscape views of the field. A history of the legislation by which the park was established is appended to the descriptive matter, with the proceedings and addresses at the meetings which gave special impulse to the park scheme.

Prof. C. W. Shields has collected various papers and addresses of his on the subject of church unity into a sizable volume, 'The United Church of the United States' (Scribners). This title will be taken as prophetic, or challenging, or simply futile, according to the reader's standpoint. Prof. Shields himself admits that the prospect of immediate church union is not bright, and that several generations must pass before all these things shall be fulfilled.

Saint Columba was an Irish saint (of the clan O'Donnell) and abbot of famed Iona, where he died in 597. His Life, written by Adamnan, one of his successors, although little more than the usual catalogue of miracles, throws much light incidentally on early Celtic monasticism and on the beginnings of Christianity in Ireland and northwestern Scotland. The reprint, edited by J. T. Fowler ('Adamnani Vita S. Columbæ'; Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is based on a larger work by Dr. Reeves. The introduction gives a good sketch of the early Celtic church, some notice of the Druids, Bards, and Brohans of ancient Ireland, and an interesting account of Iona. The notes are full of antiquarian lore, while the text of Adamnanus is better Latin than we should expect from that age (*circa* A. D. 695). But the author was a man of learning, with some knowledge even of Greek and Hebrew. The book has an admirable index, and a glossary which, though brief, will be found to supplement, especially for Irish-Latin words, the latest (the Niort) edition of Du Cange.

A history of German civilization from a new point of view is Friedrich Seiler's 'Die Entwicklung der deutschen Kultur im Spiegel des deutschen Lehnworts' (Halle: Waisenhaus), of which the first part covers the period from the earliest appearance of the German tribes to the introduction of Christianity. The author applies to historical research the old commercial proverb, "The word follows the ware," and thus endeavors, by a chronological and critical study of the foreign words in the German language, to trace the influence of foreign nations upon the growth and character of German culture. Investigations of this kind must be conducted with great care and may easily lead to very erroneous conclusions. The name of an object in many cases does not indicate its true origin. Thus we call the fowl which is a native of the western hemisphere a turkey, while the French seek its origin in India (*dinde*), and the Germans in Calcutta (*kalkutischer Hahn*); in like manner our maize or Indian corn is to the German Welsh corn (*Welschkorn*), or Turkish wheat (*Türkischer Weizen*). It must be remembered, however, that *welsch* in German means merely foreign; and this was also the signification of *türkisch* in the sixteenth century. The citizen in Goethe's "Faust" who likes to talk of war and rumors of war,

> "Wenn hinten, weit, in der Türkei,
> Die Völker auf einander schlagen,"

uses the word "Turkey" in this sense as synonymous with remote regions. Thus far Herr Seiler has conducted his researches with circumspection, and does not appear to have drawn from the exotic elements of the German tongue any conspicuously rash or untenable inferences.

Lambert le Bègue, who ranks as the founder of the order of the Béguines, has been the subject of considerable discussion. His invectives directed against the vices of the clergy of Liége, towards the end of the twelfth century, led to a prosecution for heresy in which he was roughly handled, till he succeeded in escaping and appealing to the Anti-Pope Calixtus III., who at that time was recognized in the territories of the Empire. Little was known about him until, curiously enough, some of his writings were discovered in a contemporary MS. in the Hunterian Museum of Glasgow. These have been utilized by the distinguished professor of history at Ghent, Paul Fredericq, in a paper contributed to the Royal Academy of Belgium, through which we at last obtain a tolerably clear conception of a somewhat notable personage, hitherto half mythical.

The latest monograph in the Münchener *Beiträge zur Romanischen und Englischen Philologie* is by an American, Clarence Griffin Child, and is entitled "John Lyly and Euphuism." Mr. Child gives an exhaustive and minute survey of the question, with much schematic and bibliographical information. In his conclusions he stands nearest to Landmann, yet differs from that authority in some important particulars which tend to prove Lyly's Euphuism much more the result than the cause of a popular taste. Mr. Child has "endeavored to bring out the absolute falsity of the notion that Euphuism was a sort of wilful superficiality and affectation, and to show how orderly and consistent, in spite of its faults, the Euphuistic rhetoric was. . . . Its excesses merely display how anxious and eager the effort was to attain ends thoroughly worthy—clearness, precision, force, rhythmic melody, formal consistency" (p. 116). There is at least boldness in this apology, and food for reflection for contemptuous critics of Lyly.

La Révolte, the little anarchist newspaper of Paris which, for one reason or another, raised so much talk about itself, and which ceased to appear a year ago, is to be revived next month under the name of *Les Temps Nouveaux*. Jean Grave, as before, will be its director, assisted by what may be called the regular communist staff, MM. Élisée Reclus, Pierre Kropotkin, Ch. Albert, and the rest. It will consist, like its predecessor, of eight pages, four of which will be devoted to literature. The *Révolte* was seven years old when it died, and had a circulation of about nine thousand. It was itself the successor of the *Révolté*, which was founded in 1870 by Élisée Reclus, and had a life of nine years. Jean Grave, who succeeded Reclus, was a shoemaker by trade, who learned printing in order to carry on the paper. For years he set the type in his own chamber. The entire resources of *La Révolte* at its beginning were but twenty francs.

In the *Korean Repository* for February, 1895, the two best papers are on native guilds and the Tong Hak. A system of mutual helpfulness among the common people is secured by these industrial societies, which stand in lieu of the institutional charities of Christendom. The Tong Hak, or Eastern Culture movement—the match which set ablaze the fires of war between China and Japan—really arose, in 1859, out of the reaction of the founders' mind against Christianity. Made up avowedly of a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism (and thus far akin to the Shin Gaku, or Heart Culture movement in Japan, A. D. 1820–1855), it borrows some features and the name of God from Roman Catholic Christianity. Choi, the founder, was in 1865 beheaded as a "foreigner-Korean" and a Christian, and his scriptures and religion put under ban. Under intolerable oppression, religion became politics, and nothing but Japanese bullets and bayonets under Korean direction has been able to suppress the Tong Hak rebels. "The Korean Bride," by Mrs. M. B. Jones, opens a window into social life. In "The Bird Bridge" we have the Korean version of the Star Lovers who cross the Milky May once a year on the backs of myriad magpies. In the editorial department is a valuable paper on the Korean Almanac, with the text of the King's oath of January 7, 1895, in which "all thought of dependence on China" is sworn off.

The *Geographical Journal* for April opens with the first part of an account of the Luchu Islands by Prof. B. H. Chamberlain. He describes each island separately, the natural history and industries of the whole group, and briefly outlines their history down to their enforced annexation by Japan in 1872. The most prominent race-characteristic of the people, who are closely allied by race with the Japanese, is not a physical, but a moral one. "It is their gentleness of spirit and manner, their yielding and submissive disposition, their hospitality and kindness, their aversion to violence and crime." Mr. Walter B. Harris tells the story of one of his adventurous journeys in Morocco, this time in the wilds of the southern Atlas, through a region never before visited by a white man. Much of it is a forbidding, rainless country, in which extraordinary labor has been expended upon irrigation works. In one place water was carried from a river to an oasis eleven miles distant, by "no less than eleven rows of subterranean aqueducts." These consisted of pits some thirty feet deep by ten in diameter, and sixty feet apart, which were joined by a tunnel. "A rough estimate gives the result that . . . some nine thousand of these pits must have been sunk and the intervening spaces tunnelled." Mr. Dixon's account of his explorations in British Guiana is accompanied by two maps showing the position of the gold districts, as well as the disputed territory between Guiana and Venezuela. There is also an interesting notice of the last instalment of the *Challenger* Report, now

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complete in fifty royal quarto volumes. As the highest praise which can be given to the typographical part of this magnificent work, Dr. Mill says that it "may take its place beside the best memoirs of the United States Geological Survey, and fear nothing from the comparison." The first two volumes give a narrative of the cruise; the two following are devoted to physics and chemistry, another to the deep-sea deposits, two to botany, forty to zoölogy, and two to a summary of the whole work of the expedition. There is a general index, and one of about 16,000 names of species.

The *Psychological Review* (Macmillan) has issued its first Psychological Index, "a bibliography of the literature of psychology and cognate subjects for 1894," compiled by Howard C. Warren of Princeton and Livingston Farrand of Columbia. It fills seventy-two pages, and is followed by an index of authors.

Among the new periodical ventures of the year are the *University Graduates' Magazine* (132 Nassau Street, New York), of which the character is hardly developed beyond a monthly bid for the attention of each college which is described (as, Princeton in the March number); and the *Brochure Series of Architectural Illustration* (Boston: Bates & Guild), which is, as to its plates, "to be entirely devoted to the photographic illustration of foreign architecture." Italy monopolizes Nos. 1 and 2 (January, February). Each of these thin issues sells at five cents each, and the yearly subscription is fifty cents. The size is octavo.

It seems odd to find a sympathetic article on Brook Farm in the *Catholic World* (for April), but Father Hecker's connection with the experiment would supply any missing link. "Brook Farm To day" is Mr. McGinley's theme, and he has to tell pictorially and otherwise of the Martin Luther Home for Orphans and its cemetery, "Gethsemane"; but also he traces up some of the old haunts that Time and Nature have gently spared as they have the Margaret Fuller cottage.

With the April number the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* closes its second volume, in which the table of contents shows a large measure of attention to have been bestowed on seventeenth-century history and records, as in the valuable abstracts of Virginia land patents, the causes of discontent in Virginia in connection with Bacon's rebellion, the instructions to Governors Yardley and Berkeley, the letters of William Fitzhugh, wills, etc., etc. The most important genealogical contribution is that concerning the Flournoy family of Virginia, Middle Tennessee, and West Kentucky. In the present number, one notes with curiosity two instances adduced by Mr. E. W. James of a court's granting petitions for the education of free negro apprentices in the mechanic arts in 1719 and 1727. In the latter, it was "ordered that David James a free negro be bound to Mr. James Isdel who is to teach him to read ye bible distinctly also ye Trade of a gun Smith." This has a Cromwellian sound. The friends of this magazine (and it deservedly has many) can but wish it an improved proof-reading; the recurring errata are excessive in a quarterly publication.

Mr. Foster's Monthly Bulletin of the Providence Public Library for April pays homage to the momentary Napoleon cult in a reference-list of works and reviews which will give serious occupation to any student. The same number is noticeable for its catalogue of the contents of a musical alcove in the library, containing 222 volumes, equivalent to a collection of the chief works of the best authors, say in English literature, and embracing "characteristic and representative works of the great masters in music for the last two centuries."

We can heartily commend the 'Public Library Handbook' issued by the Public Library of Denver, composed of twenty-six chapters dealing with such practical topics as starting and advertising a library, selecting and buying books, cataloguing, duties of assistants, classification, binding, taking account of stock, etc. These instructions are from several hands and are signed, and while they exemplify the practice of the Denver institution, they have a general applicability. The book is prettily printed, has diagrammatic illustrations, and of course an index.

The distribution of artesian wells on our coastal plain, from New Jersey to Virginia, is illustrated by N. H. Darton in a recent number of the Transactions of the Institute of Mining Engineers, and in so definite a manner that the number of such wells must largely increase in the future. The region is underlain by a series of great sheets of unconsolidated deposits, mainly sands and clays, lying unconformably on an east-sloping floor of harder rocks. A map shows the location of the various deep wells, and numerous sections exhibit their relation to the water-bearing strata that they pierce. It is curious to note that several wells in Maryland east of the Chesapeake Bay, as at Claiborne, Easton, and Cambridge, derive their water-supply from rainfall west of the bay, which passes beneath the salt water of the bay before rising in the wells. Similarly, numerous wells that supply the summer settlements on the sand-bars of the Jersey coast, receive their supply from inland rainfall that passes down through gravel beds deep beneath the salt-water lagoons behind the sand-bars, before it is again brought to the surface.

An important official report has lately been issued, entitled 'Agriculture by Irrigation in the Western Part of the United States at the Eleventh Census,' prepared by F. H. Newell, special agent. It is well illustrated with maps of the whole area, of States separately, and of special districts, as well as by numerous views and diagrams, making the most satisfactory general account of the development of this important art in our arid regions that has yet appeared in this country. It is gratifying to add that its tone is throughout much more scientific than that of a number of other official reports on this subject which might be cited. The general map of irrigated districts shows the largest areas in northern and southern Colorado, northern Utah, scattered over Montana, and grouped along the base of the Sierra Nevada in the valley of California. In both Colorado and California, about a million acres of land are thus rendered cultivable; yet this is only a little over 1 per cent. of the area of each of these great States. Arizona and New Mexico irrigate less than a hundred thousand acres, or about 1-10 of 1 per cent. of their whole surface.

—Mr. Henry Bradley's second fascicule of volume iv. of the 'New English Dictionary' (Macmillan) made its quarterly appearance promptly on April 1. It reaches from *Fanged* to *Fee*, and contains an unusual proportion of words having an ancient pedigree, with a scarcely visible minimum of modern scientific terms. The latter circumstance marks the non-success as yet of the phonetic revolution, for if the scientific *ph*'s were bodily transferred to the letter F, then a goodly array of scientific formations from the Greek would take their place here beside *Farad*, *faradaic*, *faradaism*, *faradization*, etc. On the other hand, we meet with *fare*, the now obsolete term for 'strait' (in "Fare of Messina"), which might suggest 'thoroughfare,' whereas the derivation is from the Greek *pharos*, meaning first a lighthouse in the strait, then the promontory thus guarded, and finally the water passage. The alternative spelling *phare* illuminates the whole matter, but the phonetic reformers would interdict it, and would thus add another source of confusion to the eight shades of meaning of fare, 'a going' (including 'passage money,' 'passenger,' and 'food'), to say nothing of the obsolete substantives *fare*, 'a litter of pigs,' and *fare*, 'a game at dice.' Their choler must rise when they read Mr. Bradley's note under *fantastic:* "The form *phantastic* is no longer generally current, but has been casually used by a few writers of the nineteenth century to suggest associations connected with the Greek etymology." And again, under *fantasy:*

"The shortened form *fancy*, which apparently originated in the fifteenth century, had in the time of Shakspere [so Mr. Bradley spells the name, we remark in passing] become more or less differentiated in sense. After the revival of Greek learning, the longer form was often spelt *phantasy*, and its meaning was influenced by the Greek etymon. In modern use, *fantasy* and *phantasy*, in spite of their identity in sound and in ultimate etymology, tend to be apprehended as separate words, the predominant sense of the former being 'caprice, whim, fanciful invention,' while that of the latter is 'imagination, visionary notion.'"

Strange perversity of the human mind, which seeks variety in language instead of simplicity and uniformity, and, having secured it, uses a discriminating orthography for quick apprehension by the eye! In like manner we write, "the Powers of Europe," "the State of New York," using a capital initial for the sake of the reader and not the listener.

—In close connection with the foregoing is the statement that "in standard English the form *farther* is usually preferred where the word is intended to be the comparative of *far*, while *further* is used where the notion of *far* is altogether absent; there is a large intermediate class of instances in which the choice between the two forms is arbitrary." The requirements of poetic euphony will tend to keep this and all similar choices open. Here is an interesting remark under *father:*

"The modern English *-ther* . . . for O. E. *-der*, *-dor* in *father* and *mother* is often wrongly said to be due to the analogy of *brother* or to Scandinavian influence; it is really the result of a phonetic law common to the great majority of English dialects; other examples in standard English are *gather*, *wither*, *together*, *weather*. At present nearly all dialects pronounce *father* and *mother* . . . as in standard English; in various parts of the north of England and the north Lowlands (d), alveolar or dental, is sometimes heard."

The contest between usage and dictionary comes to light under *feasible*, third meaning, 'likely, probable' (of a proposition, theory, story, etc.). "Hardly a justifiable sense, etymologically," comments the editor, "and (probably for that reason) recognized by no dictionary, though supported by considerable literary authority"—Hobbes, Lyell, Livingstone, and others. Amateurs of the fashionable game of golf who are at a loss whether to sound the *l* or not, may learn here that the etymological restoration of *l* to *faute* (fault), after it had been taken over from the French, had become standard in the seventeenth century; "but in Pope and Swift it [*fault*] rimes

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[so Mr. Bradley spells this word] with *thought*, *wrought*, and Johnson (1755) says that in conversation the *l* is generally suppressed"—as it is in many dialects to-day. We had expected some notice of the vulgar pronunciation of *February*, with a suppression of the first *r*, but there is none. Finally, the phrases involving *white feather*, in the sense of 'cowardice,' are explained as "in allusion to the fact that a white feather in a game-bird's tail is a mark of inferior breeding." We cannot controvert this, but we are reminded of the white "flag" in a rabbit's and a buck's tail, and wonder if the cowardice is not associated with *retreat* ("turning tail").

—Mr. A. J. Butler, the well-known translator of Dante, whose rendering of Scartazzini's 'Dante-Handbuch' into English was noticed by us some months ago, has just published, under the title 'Dante: His Times and His Work' (London: A. D. Innes & Co.), a volume compounded of papers originally written for the little-known periodicals, the *Monthly Packet* and the *Magazine of the Home Reading Union*. The book is intended not for advanced students of Dante, but for persons just beginning to read him and in need of preliminary information of an elementary kind. This end the book seems to us to serve well. It is less detailed and technical than Scartazzini's work, more accurate and reliable than Symonds's. Particularly clear and good are the account of the rise of the Guelf and Ghibelline parties in Italy and that of political affairs in Florence up to Dante's exile. We could wish, however, that the author had treated a little less superficially the general intellectual condition of the thirteenth century, as well as the character of the Provençal and Old French literatures and their influence upon the beginnings of Italian poetry and upon Dante himself. It cannot be too often repeated that Dante cannot really be understood without some appreciation of these sources of many of his most fundamental conceptions.

—We have noted some inaccuracies of statement. It is not true, speaking of the general condition of literature in the Middle Ages, to say (p. 8) that "not till the twelfth century was far advanced did any signs of a reawakening appear." The 'Chanson de Roland,' the greatest of Old French poems, was written as we have it in the end of the eleventh century; and the first of the Troubadours, William VII. of Poitou, was born not far from the same time. Guido Cavalcanti, Dante's most intimate friend in Florence, died August 28 or 29, 1300, and not "in the course of the winter" of that year (p. 75). Where does Dante tell us, as the author asserts (p. 85), that he wrote the 'Vita Nuova' before he was twenty-five? It will hardly do to say that the whole conception of Canto III. of the "Inferno" (punishment of the indifferent and unpartisan) "seems to be due to Dante's own invention" (p. 93). Had not Dante clearly in mind the immortal condemnation of the Laodiceans (Rev. iii. 14-16)? Among the "student's" editions of the 'Divine Comedy,' Scartazzini's one-volume edition (Milan, 1893) should certainly be mentioned (p. 194), as by far the best we yet have. Blanc's 'Vocabolario Dantesco' was originally written in French, not in German (p. 194). The most serious slip, however, is the statement (p. 49) that "Dante's son Pietro says no word to show that Beatrice was anything but a symbol, and in this some of the other early commentators follow him." The first person to assert the historic unreality of Beatrice was Filelfo, in the fifteenth century. As for Pietro di Dante, while it is true that the manuscript of his Comment printed by Lord Vernon contains no mention of the flesh-and-blood Beatrice, there exists another group of manuscripts (of which the English Ashburnham Codex 841 is the best-known representative) containing apparently a later and fuller form of the Comment, in which it is distinctly said of her that she was "nata de domo quorundam civium florentinorum, qui dicuntur Portinari, de qua Dantes auctor procus fuit et amator in vita dicte domine et in eius laudem multas fecit cantilenas." Bartoli, eager in defence of his interpretation of Beatrice as the *ewig-Weibliche*, sought to prove this passage an interpolation; but Signor Luigi Rocca, in the *Giornale storico della Letteratura Italiana* (vii., p. 366 *seq.*) has shown this to be impossible. Hence we have the assurance that Dante's own son believed his father to have loved and honored with his pen the historic Beatrice Portinari, daughter of Folco Portinari and wife of Simone de' Bardi.

—Bishop Creighton's Hulsean Lectures on 'Persecution and Tolerance' (Longmans) are, as might be expected, charming in thought and expression, and instinct with the love and charity befitting a Christian prelate. His leading object is to prove that Christianity itself is not justly chargeable with the deplorable crimes that have been committed in its name, and that modern writers are mistaken in attributing them to the doctrine of "exclusive salvation" which rendered it the duty of all possessing power to enforce uniformity of belief in order to save souls from Satan. He holds that persecution has always sprung from the desire to preserve social organization and ecclesiastical domination, and that its abandonment has arisen not from a spread of intelligence, but from the recognition of the fact that social order can be maintained amid diversity of belief. This is a vindication of religion at the expense of its representatives, whom it deprives of excuse by attributing to them worldly motives, however disguised by the self-deceit which is so easy; and, in spite of Bishop Creighton's persuasive eloquence and ample knowledge, we cannot but regard his argument as unconvincing. Unquestionably, as he says, justification for intolerance is not to be found in the teachings of the Gospel, but these teachings form only a small part of the structure that has been erected upon them; and the motives which led to the Albigensian crusades and the career of the Inquisition were more complex than Bishop Creighton endeavors to prove. Selfish lust of domination unquestionably there was, but also there were the sense of duty to prevent Satan from extending his empire, and a profound conviction that God had intrusted his church, as his chosen instrument, with power to root out heresy. We should be loath to attribute to Pius IX. a merely selfish desire to preserve his rule over the human mind when, in his Apostolic Letter, *Multiplices inter* of 1851, and his Allocution *Maxima quidem* of 1862, he emphatically condemned the maxim that every man is at liberty to worship God according to his conscience, and when he repeated this in the Syllabus of 1864 as the accepted doctrine of the Church, which all its prelates are required to enforce.

—The *American Journal of Art and Archæology* (October-December, 1894), besides the usual extensive and well-arranged budget of archæological news, contains important papers by Mr. Henry S. Washington and Prof. Marquand. Mr. Washington reviews the question of the date of the Santorini pottery. These relics, which were discovered in the island of Thera, buried under the lava and scoriæ of a prehistoric volcanic eruption, have been reckoned as perhaps the oldest specimens of Aegean pottery, though their style is more advanced than that of objects found in Dr. Schliemann's "second city" in the Troad. For quasi-geological reasons, M. Fouqué had assigned to them the approximate date of 2000 B. C.; and this date has been assumed as a sort of "pou sto" in the quicksands of the period. It is quoted by various manuals as a settled point, and it is apparently so treated even in M. Perrot's latest volumes on early Greek art. Mr. Washington shows very conclusively that M. Fouqué's conjecture is unwarranted and that geology has positively no answer to give to the question when the Santorini pottery was buried. Prof. Marquand examines with great care, in a series of elaborate tables, the value of such architectural standards as the so-called "Semper's norm." Semper expresses the "norm" of Doric architecture by the ratio of the width between column-axes to the height of the order, and, in accordance with this standard, distinguishes six successive periods in the Doric style. Prof. Marquand shows this norm to be unpractical and insufficient. It makes no account of many other proportions which the architect must have had in mind. Mr. Marquand himself applies to the five temples of Selinus a series of tests derived from comparison of the ground-plan, the elevation, the columns, and the entablature. His conclusion from the application of all these norms is, that any inference as to date must often be uncertain. "The study of the ground-plan produces one result, the elevation another, the columns and entablature a third." The evidence derived from a study of proportions alone is, therefore, though valuable, not always decisive. It is a laborious method of reaching results which may sometimes be more quickly attained by other means.

—We seem to hear a new note, new at least for South America, in a little book by Federico Elguera ('Marionetes'; Lima: Gil, 1894), which, as its name implies, finds the world very much of a huge puppet-show. But it has no touch of that vicious spirit of cynicism caught out of French influences by so many Spanish-Americans and offered in the place of humor. It is a good healthy book, and a clean one, not indulging in grotesque caricature, nor yet depending upon any unusual sparkle of wit or fancy, but full of wholesome fun because the author has a faculty for seeing men precisely as they are, and knows how to paint them truly. The ubiquitous scamp *Perecito*, half gentleman, half mendicant, pleading for work to buy bread for his variously afflicted family, disgracing every effort of kindness in his behalf, and finally extorting a dollar upon a tearful plea and spending it for a seat at the theatre, is a familiar character to us all, and yet we cannot deny the petition while we have the dollar in our pocket. There is fine humor, too, with a strong and characteristic local color, in the indigent petty politician who can put no other interpretation upon a summons from the President, coming just after a ministerial crisis, than that of a recognition of his self-conceived talents. The intellectual littleness of the man as shown in the bluster and pompous irritability of preparation for the momentous visit, as well as in his stupid misinterpretation of the interview with the President, followed naturally by discomfi-

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ture, the whole brought out in strong relief against the discriminating good sense of his doubting yet hopeful wife, is admirably portrayed. The book is in many respects notable. Eschewing the orthodox Castilian literary models, adopting rather the speech of the café and the streets, without buffoonery or pessimism, it applies the cold, keen lance of practical common sense to a people who would be the better for a little of such blood-letting, and then, with a touch of human sympathy that colors every sally, seems to say, "But, after all, brother, you're a pretty good fellow, and I have faith in you for the future."

—The proper pronunciation of *sp* and *st* in German has long been a puzzle to many teachers of that language, who are unable to decide whether they shall adhere to the Hanoverian practice of pronouncing words like *sprechen* and *stehen* as they are spelled, or adopt the more general usage and pronounce them as though they were written *schprechen* and *schtehen*. In a lecture recently delivered before the Berlin Deutscher Sprachverein, Dr. Grabow of Bromberg showed that the soft or coalescent sound represented by *sch* in German and *sh* in English was unknown to Old High German, and first appears in the transition to Middle High German wherever *s* is followed by hard *c* or *k*. Thus we find in O. H. G. the words skif, skaf, skaz, miskan, skriban, which in M. H. G. are written and pronounced schif, schaz, schaf, mischen, schriben. This change did not extend at first to *sl*, *sm*, *sn*, *sw*, etc., which remained the same in O. H. G. and M. H. G., as, for example, in slagen, smizen, smeren, sniden, swimmen, swingen. Very soon, however, these digraphs began to be pronounced as though they were written schl, etc., but it was not until the formation of New High German that the orthography conformed to the orthoepy, and the words were spelled schlagen, schmeissen, schmieren, schneiden, schwimmen, schwingen. At a still later period *sp* and *st* obeyed the same law of development and underwent a similar orthoepic transformation, but without producing a corresponding change in the orthography of the words beginning with these letters, so that today more than six-sevenths of the German people pronounce sprechen, spielen, stehen, stechen, etc., as though they were written schprechen, etc. The same tendency is also perceptible in the early evolution of the English language. As *s* before *c* or *k* in O. H. G. became *sch* in M. H. G., so *sc* in Anglo-Saxon became *sh* in English: sceótan, shoot; scufan, shove; scyttan, shut; scip, ship; scrud, shroud; sceó, shoe; sceáp, sheep. The movement, however, seems to have stopped here and did not extend to *sl*, *sm*, *sn*, *sp*, *st*, *sw*, and *su*, the few words in which *su* is pronounced as though it were written *shu* (sure, sugar, sumach, censure, sensual) being of French origin. The attempt made by Sheridan and others to give this sound to *su* in suicide (shooicide), supreme (shoopreme), etc., failed to receive the sanction of the best orthoepists or of general usage. Indeed, the extension of the *sch* sound to these digraphs in German may be regarded as a mark of literary degeneracy, since it was contemporary with the decline of courtly epic poetry and the minne song which followed the fall of the Hohenstaufen. The change took place after poesy, which had been attuned to the harps of knightly minstrels, had passed into the hands of "rude mechanicals."

ASSYRIAN DICTIONARIES.

Assyrisches Handwörterbuch. Von Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch, ord. Professor an der Universität zu Breslau. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs. Erster Teil. 1894. Zweiter Teil. 1895.

A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language. By W. Muss-Arnolt. Berlin: Reuther & Reichard; New York: B. Westermann & Co. Parts I and II. 1895.

SCHOLARS have been long waiting for Professor Delitzsch's Assyrian Dictionary. Since Norris, that excellent and modest English scholar, published his three volumes (1868-'72), there has been nothing to represent the growing Assyrian vocabulary, except special glossaries, etymological treatises, and the individual word-collections of separate students. Even Norris's Dictionary treated only the nouns. Delitzsch did, indeed, append to the third edition of his 'Assyrische Lesestücke' (1885) a 'Kleines Assyrisches Wörterbuch,' so called, but this was made up from memory, as he himself has told us, was by its nature an incomplete and provisional affair, and contained no references. It had not even a specific relation to the Chrestomathy with which it was bound up. Delitzsch has had, however, great advantages for the production of a relatively complete and useful Lexicon of the Assyrian language, in preliminary training and in long familiarity with the materials, and he has no doubt felt, as others have, that he owed such a work to his fellow-workers and to the new generations of students, as well as to his own position. This debt he began to discharge in 1887 by the publication of his 'Assyrisches Wörterbuch,' of which three parts have appeared. But it grew evident that this work was undertaken on too elaborate a scale. The time was not ripe for a monumental thesaurus. Assyrian studies were in a state of flux. What was needed was a book of moderate compass and cost, as comprehensive as the present state of our knowledge admits, with citations enough to justify the definitions given, with thoroughly sifted etymological statements, and with a careful discrimination between what is known and what is conjectured. An unpretentious and promising 'Assyrian Glossary' was projected at Johns Hopkins University, some seven or eight years ago, but the plan fell through at that time. The 'Concise Dictionary' of Dr. Muss-Arnolt of the University of Chicago may be regarded as its continuation. There is certainly, at the present moment, a clear field for a practical Assyrian Dictionary, and two books are appearing to occupy it.

'Delitzsch is the first claimant, with his 'Handwörterbuch.' The first two parts lie before us. The remainder was promised before the end of the year 1894. It is to be hoped that the year 1895 will see it. In externals the book is good: The size is convenient, the type clear, the impression of the page clean and attractive. The matter is abundant, but compact. Citations are sufficient in number and from a wide range of literature. The articles are not unduly long, and reference to them will be easy. The labor involved in such digestion and arrangement of the materials is very great and deserves cordial recognition. Some proper names are included, but not compounds, which is a sensible course. The thick type of the initial words catches the eye readily. Why it is of different sizes, and why Hebrew letters are prefixed in the case of some stems and not of others, are questions that will puzzle beginners and even some advanced students. The introduction which the concluding part is to bring will probably clear these matters up.

Passing to the contents, we desire at once to say that they testify to large familiarity with the text, to knowledge grammatical as well as lexical, to earnestness, to great industry, to very considerable insight and power of combination. The work is, of course, not final, but this is due in large part to the situation. Assyriological science is moving so swiftly that an attempt to fix any aspect of it can have only temporary success. This must be constantly remembered in order to just criticism. And here space admits of reference to very few details.

The words are disposed under their respective stems. This seems on the whole wise. The derivatives are needed to present fairly the use of any given stem, and the student learns more readily the common noun-formations. It may be objected that not all the stems are known, and indeed the same objection has been often, and even recently, made to a similar disposition in a Hebrew dictionary, where the margin of uncertainty is much narrower. But this objection is of little consequence in view of the decided advantages on the other side. The certainty that particulars will be modified with advancing knowledge is not a sufficient reason for refusing to exhibit most practically and usefully what is believed to be known at present.

There is almost no information as to the etymology of the stem-words themselves. Fulness here was out of the question; it would have conflicted with the indispensable conditions of size and price. But we could have wished for enough to show the verbal relations between the languages of the Shemitic family. Few things are more attractive to the Shemitic student or more illumining, in his early stages, than a judicious presentation of equivalents in the cognate languages, with their divergent shades of meaning. Even brief hints do good out of all proportion to the space occupied by them. By this silence we lose also much evidence as to the contributions of Assyriology to the interpretation of Hebrew and other Shemitic words. In Assyrian lexicography we have, further, the whole range of connection between the Shemitic and the pre-Shemitic on Babylonian soil. We cannot help regarding it as one of the defects in Delitzsch's equipment for the work of a lexicographer that he yielded some time ago to the theory that a pre-Shemitic language does not exist in the cuneiform writing. This theory raises far graver difficulties than the ones it tries to meet, and is regarded by the soberest judges as untenable. This being so, it is a pity that in a dictionary which students are to handle there should be no suggestion of the intricate and fascinating relation between the Assyrian and the Akkado-Sumerian vocabulary. It is, however, to the credit of his good judgment that Delitzsch has refrained from any argumentation in favor of the non-Akkadian theory, and even any further obvious commitment to it. Moreover, the lack of etymological statements is atoned for in part by the full exhibition of linguistic facts in important cases, with occasional suggestions of comparison as to particular points of usage. Such words as *alâku*, 'go,' *bêlu*, 'take possession of,' *banû*, 'build,' *gamâru*, 'complete,' *dalâlu*, 'be humble,' afford illustrations.

An examination of the word-meanings, in connection with Delitzsch's earlier work, reveals a certain changeableness of view which we fear will not tend to increase the general confidence of sceptical scholars in the scientific basis of Assyriology. Take for example *ummu*,

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'mother,' which in 'Hebrew and Assyrian' (1883) and the 'Prolegomena' (1886) was distinctly derived from a stem meaning 'wide,' 'spacious'; now the relation between such a stem and the meanings of 'womb' and 'mother' is stated hesitantly and obscurely. So now we have no definition of the stems whence come *assatu*, 'woman,' 'wife,' and *têniséti(m)*, 'mankind,' nor even any allusion to the evidence that they are distinct in origin. *Annabu*, 'hare,' which formerly was explained as 'Springinsfeld,' is now questioningly interpreted from its fertility. Under *alu*, 'city,' which was formerly (even in the large lexicon) connected with the Hebrew *'ōhel*, 'tent,' as well as with Assyr. *mailu*, *mailtu*, 'couch,' now stands quite alone. In some instances the present attitude is probably wiser than the former, but not in all, and the abandonment, without an array of new evidence, of positions taken with much positiveness not long ago may lead some to doubt the security of positions taken now. However, this is a defect of the past rather than of the present. We shall be glad to believe that these changes mark increasing sobriety of judgment, and a sharper distinction between what is fairly proved and what still remains mere opinion.

It would be interesting to take up other points, such as the principles of transcription and the treatment of particular words, but our limits forbid. We are glad to welcome this dictionary. It has some faults, but great merits. It will serve an immediate and useful purpose and furnish a basis for something better when the time comes. One final remark is called out by a statement in the prospectus, to the effect that the larger 'Assyrisches Wörterbuch' is relieved of so much material by the publication of the hand-dictionary that it can now be finished in three additional parts instead of seven. How a thesaurus of which three parts have been already published without completing the first letter can be finished at all in three more parts, and how the publication of a compendious hand dictionary can so relieve the thesaurus as to permit its completion in less than half the expected space, it is not easy to see. This amazing statement does not encourage lively anticipations as to the value of the thesaurus, which should either be finished slowly, on an ample scale, or abandoned altogether.

Dr. Muss-Arnolt's work promises to fill about 500 pages—rather less in number than Delitzsch's—but the size is reduced not so much by diminishing the amount of matter as by the use of smaller type, the utmost compression of statement, and an ingenious system of abbreviations. Detailed comment must be reserved, but certain features are obvious. The Assyrian words are transcribed in Latin letters, as in Delitzsch's book, but without the stem-headings in Hebrew characters. They are arranged alphabetically, a method inferior to the arrangement by stems, which Delitzsch employs. Some other differences are, however, to the advantage of Muss-Arnolt. It is a clever stroke to give definitions and cited passages in both English and German, although it uses up space. Two most distinctive and valuable characteristics, however, in both of which Delitzsch's work is defective, are the etymological statements and hints, including comparisons with the cognate languages, and the frequent and judicious references to philological discussions bearing on derivation and interpretation. These are exceedingly important features, and more than make up for the fewer and briefer citations of Assyrian texts. It is evident that, except for the necessity of buying two books instead of one, Assyrian students will be much the gainers by the publication of both these works.

BOHEMIA AND THE BOHEMIANS.

History of Bohemia. By Robert H. Vickers. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. 1894.

Pictures from Bohemia, Drawn with Pen and Pencil. By James Baker, F.R.G.S. Fleming H. Revell Co.

THE two books above named are the work of Czechophils who feel that they have discovered a new country and a new people, and have a certain duty to perform in imparting their knowledge to the general public. Bohemia is, in truth, a comparatively unknown region to the average American or English student, but we are not yet prepared to recognize it as *terra incognita*, nor can we agree to the proposition that, "to the apprehension of most persons, a Bohemian means a vagabond, a gypsy, a tramp, an anarchist, a conspirator," or to the statement that "the least breath of popular discontent is attributed to Bohemians." Notions of this kind are frequently held by the ignorant, but they can hardly be asserted to be characteristic of the more enlightened portion of the community, of those who travel and read books of history.

Mr. Vickers informs us in the preface to his history that the work is "presented as friendship's sympathetic offering to the Bohemian people," and as their "vindication," which is certainly a very laudable presentation, but we are not sure that we understand on what grounds the "most orderly, industrious, peaceable, and thrifty people" which make up the Bohemian nation require a vindication. Their position in the technical and fine arts, in science, medicine, and literature, has long been recognized, and there are probably not many who associate the stirring compositions of their masters in music with the stridulations of roving bands of gypsies. It may be unfortunate that the word "Bohemian" has been retained as a part of the stock in trade of at least three languages, but it serves a purpose, and its meaning is too well understood to permit it to stand in condemnation of a people who to-day number some five millions or more. Mr. Vickers is throughout a champion of his chosen nation, and he has not been able to accommodate himself to that impartial vision which should be the first possession of an historian. It is therefore not surprising to find in the modern history such statements as (p. 737), "Thus Hungary three times within two years entirely destroyed the efforts of Bohemia," and (p. 739) "America was blinded by the glare of Louis Kossuth, and totally lost sight of the Slavs whom Kossuth had endeavored to subjugate." This unfriendly feeling to the Hungarians is extended to the events of 1867, when not even the brilliant but thoroughly honest statesmanship of Deák saves them from the charge of having "deliberated only for themselves" (p. 745).

In the compilation of his stirring narrative Mr. Vickers has availed himself largely of material derived from native sources, and he deserves the thanks of English-reading students for having compressed so much substance into a single book. On many pages, however, it is only too apparent that the author's own knowledge is largely superficial, and a marked unfamiliarity with his surroundings crops out here and there, noticeable more particularly where absolute dependence is placed upon the form and substance of the writings of historians whom he uses as his guides. Such an instance we find in an extract (not accredited, however) from a well-known French work, which appears as follows on page 737: "Of the provinces seven were named, German, Bohemian, Polish, Italian, Jon[u]go-Slav, Magyar and *Valaque*." Again, on p. 742, the *Lettre de Majesté* of October 20, 1860, which appears in an English translation, is signed with the letters M. P. (*manu·propria*) following the Emperor's name. The author is reckless in the spelling of proper names, and we have an almost indiscriminate commingling of English, German, and Bohemian (and even French) forms, and a barbarous use and elimination of accents. Thus, to mention only a few of the offences, we have Bethle and Bethlehem Gabor, Palacky and Palacký, Safarik and Szafarik, Windisch-Grätz, and Deak; but possibly some of these sins of omission and commission fall to the very negligent printers rather than to the author himself. So, too, may it be with the date of the battle of Sadowa, July 4 [3], 1861 [6], on p. 744. As is only too often the case with historians, Mr. Vickers is undisguisedly ignorant of the geography of the country whose history he narrates, and his first chapter, "Geographical Conditions," may fairly be considered a literary curiosity. It makes an attempt in both topography and physical geography (or geology), and it fails equally in both. We are informed on p. 11, the opening page, that the "primitive mountains proper occupy chiefly the south and southeast, and include the Böhmerwald, the northern, and the Sumava, the southern portion of the great chain which constitutes in general the southern boundary of the country." These are composed chiefly of "granite, schiste, and mica-schiste." A little further on we are enlightened as to the existence of a "second chain of primitive mountains," protecting the northwest, in the midst of which a "small elevated plateau named Labska Louka (Elbewiese)" gives "rise to the Labe River, or Elbe." Presumably the mountains under consideration are the northeastern Riesengebirge, or Giant Mountains, both of which names are seemingly unfamiliar to the author. We are made acquainted with a "third chain of primitive mountains, called in geography Adlergebirge (Orlicke Hory)," and with still another "third system of mountain elevations," furnishing coal, iron, and *chalk*, and "known under the general title of Stony"; presumably these last correspond to the well-known Erzgebirge, or Ore Mountains. On p. 17 the area of the country is stated in a note, with fair accuracy, to be 20,000 English square miles, but in the text is given as 5,000! Apparently the linear expression has here been used in place of the areal.

The author's unfamiliarity with scientific expression and facts is found in such statements as (p. 12), "In this [Silurian] formation fossils of crustaceans, cephalopods, and marine zeoliths are found in abundance," and (p. 13) "The flora of Bohemia is very diversified, and includes many Alpine plants usually discovered only in a warmer latitude." The "map of Bohemia" (of Bohemia and Moravia, in fact) which accompanies the work is Bohemian in substance, but French in final execution; hence we have Praha for Prague or Prag, Karlovary for Carlsbad or Karlsbad, etc., with surroundings of *Prusse*, *Autriche*, *Bavière*, and *Hongrie*. It is exceedingly commonplace in execution, and forms the basis of the geographical text.

Mr. Baker's 'Pictures from Bohemia' are very nearly what the title indicates, to which it might be added that in most cases the

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word-pictures are indifferent and the pencil-pictures often not much better. Here and there Walter Crane gives us a true, facile touch of his pen, but, as is so often the case with the work of English illustrators, his designs are stiff and coldly rendered. The book is part guide-book and part personal narrative, and may be acceptable to the few who have travelled the byways of Bohemia as refreshing the memory, but we doubt if it will stimulate travel in the direction of that very interesting country. The descriptions of scenery are very defective, and centre mainly about the giant sandstone crags of the north and the piney forests below; of the charming mountain recesses of the Böhmerwald and the Riesengebirge we have practically nothing, nor, indeed, does it appear from the narrative that the writer had much acquaintance with those tracts. The people are not treated much bet ter than the landscape, although Mr. Baker warms very noticeably when extolling their many virtues and graces. The following description of the peasantry of Haida may be taken as a sample of the author's style:

"On the left hand are the women, a blaze of color, for every woman wears a head-dress of brilliant hues; every shade and every combination of color is there—red, blue, brown, yellow, black, sky-blue, crimson, green, gray, violet, ultramarine, orange. . . . On the men's side all is dark, gray, and sombre, for they wear here modern costume *sans* bright hues" (p. 23).

A modification of this description, applying to the inhabitants of Pilsen, is found on p. 100: "Around a pile of eggs and butter and fowls were grouped women in mauve, red, light pink, blue, chocolate, dark brown, olive, yellow, a black-gray alternating on one dress with yellow and red, very light blue, pink, purple, and primrose yellow." It could hardly be expected otherwise, after such a kaleidoscopic description, than that the author should state (p. 83) that the Bohemian "dress refutes the statement that picturesque and representative costume is not now to be met with in Europe"!

Mr. Baker, like Mr. Vickers, lacks the quality of acquaintance with his country, and shows a marked unfamiliarity with certain well-known names in history. Thus, adapting his history manifestly from the German Palacky, we find on p. 77 the statement that the "earliest-known inhabitants of Bohemia were the Bojen, . . . : then came the Markomannen," etc. This may in part be a slip, for further on we do find Boii, but Markomannen recurs. A careless adaptation of the German is also found on p. 173, where the Council-house of Eger is identified with the "Burgermeister's House" of Schiller. A most singular termination of the book, and the only touch of science in it, is the enumeration of ten species of plants from the Rip Mountain, which "will prove to the English botanist that he may find in Bohemia plants he might seek for in vain in our own country, and thus add an additional pleasure to his travels."

The Silva of North America. By Charles S. Sargent. Vol. VII. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE present volume begins the second half of this invaluable work. As had been expected, it opens with the red bay, and includes our native species of elm, mulberry, walnut, and hickory, besides other more or less related trees. Of the laurel family we have five native trees, the red bay and the swamp bay of the Southern States (species of *Persea*), the Floridian *Ocotea Catesbyana*, the sassafras, and the Californian laurel (*Umbellularia Californica*). Of these spicy trees the sassafras grows to the largest size, being sometimes eighty to ninety feet high, and with a trunk nearly six feet in diameter, though it is probable that these dimensions are rarely attained. The pleasantly aromatic roots were formerly considered an excellent remedy for rheumatism and other diseases, and were gathered and exported in great quantities by the early American colonists. Faith in the remedial power of the plant has now pretty much disappeared; but the roots are still used as flavoring for beer and confectionery, and the young foliage is gathered and dried in the Southern States as a chief ingredient in the mucilaginous soup known as *gumbo*. Linnæus named this tree *Laurus Sassafras*. Nees ab Esenbeck separated it from *Laurus*, and called it *Sassafras officinale*, under which name it has usually been known since 1830. The modern American craze for "reformed nomenclature" has substituted the amphisbæna-like binomial of "*Sassafras Sassafras*." The Californian laurel is a stately evergreen, scarcely smaller than the sassafras. Its dark and polished foliage is persistent for several years, and it is a favorite ornament of parks in California. The berries are rather rounder than an olive, and dark purple when ripe. The wood is strong and durable, of a rich brownish color, and is much used for ornamental wainscoting and for cabinet-work.

The order *Euphorbiaceæ*, besides its many herbaceous species, is represented in southern Florida by four small trees, one of which is the manchineel (*Hippomane Mancinella*), with its pretty but noxious apples. The whole tree is so poisonous that the stories told of it remind one of the legends connected with the upas-tree of Java. Our elms are happily permitted to rest in peace under their well-known names. Chief among them, of course, is the white elm (*Ulmus Americana*), the glory of New England's meadows and roadsides. Our four other elms are less noticeable, though all are occasionally fine trees. The winged bark of the wahoo (*Ulmus alata*) and of the cork-elm (*U. racemosa*) is much like that of the sweetgum (*Liquidambar*), and is sometimes imitated in the cedar-elm of Texas (*U. crassifolia*). The fifth elm is the well-known slippery elm (*U. fulva*), which has such fragrant and mucilaginous inner bark that the author does not recommend it for planting in public places, as it must sooner or later become the prey of boys. Related to the elms are the planera or water-elm (*Planera aquatica*) of the Southern States, and the two species of hackberry (*Celtis occidentalis* and *C. Mississippiensis*). The hackberries have much the look of elms; but the leaves are narrower, and the fruit is a small round inedible berry.

In the order *Moraceæ* we have two native mulberries—the common red mulberry (*Morus rubra*), and a Mexican species which finds its northern limit in Texas. Then there are two kinds of fig-tree in Florida (*Ficus aurea* and *F. populnea*), and in the Southwest the handsome Osage orange, the *bois d'arc* of the French colonists and voyageurs. This tree, with its handsome foliage and its great orange-like but woody and terebinthine fruits, is exceedingly ornamental, and as it is perfectly hardy even in southern New England, it well deserves wider cultivation than it has yet received. The wood is hard, yellowish, slow to decay, and possesses very great elasticity, whence it has been the favorite material for bows among the Western Indians. For many years it has been known to botanists under the name of *Maclura aurantiaca*, a name given by Nuttall in 1818; but it now seems that Rafinesque was a year earlier in calling it *Ioxylon pomiferum*, which it is claimed was a misprint for *Toxylon pomiferum*, the name here adopted. *Toxylon* is said to be the Greek equivalent of the old name *bois d'arc*, but by strict etymological rules the word ought to have had one more syllable, and have been written *Toxoxylon*. Perhaps it is well in this case to let etymology yield to euphony.

Of plane-trees or planes (*Platanus*), commonly known as buttonball and buttonwood, we have three species, the widespread *P. occidentalis*, ranging from New England to Texas, one of our very largest trees, sometimes reaching the height of 170 feet, and with a trunk ten feet in diameter, and two Western kinds—*P. racemosa* of California, scarcely smaller than the Atlantic species, and *P. Wrightii* of New Mexico and Arizona. The name sycamore is so thoroughly appropriated to these trees in the United States that it cannot be displaced; but it should be remembered that in England the name is given to a broad-leaved maple (*Acer Pseudoplatanus*), while the συκόμορος of the ancients was a species of fig-tree (*Ficus Sycomorus*), a common shade-tree in Egypt. The latter was also sometimes called συκάμινος, though this name belonged more especially to the mulberry.

Corkwood (*Leitneria Floridana*) is a small swamp-grown tree of Florida and Missouri, having somewhat the appearance of a willow, but with pointed drupes nearly an inch long for fruit. It seems to stand alone by itself as the sole representative of a natural order, and by common consent is placed between the planes and the walnuts. The wood is the lightest we have, being only about one-fifth the weight of water, and is used for floats by the fishermen of Missouri.

The last order of trees taken up in this volume is the walnut family (*Juglandaceæ*), of which we have two genera, walnut and hickory. Besides some obscurer distinctions, the principal difference between the two is that the husk or involucre of the walnuts is indehiscent, and so breaks up irregularly or not at all, while in the hickories the husk readily cleaves into its four valves. In Dr. Isaac Taylor's book, 'The Origin of the Aryans,' is given a summary of Geiger's argument that the use by the Greeks of the word φηγός, the linguistic equivalent of the Teutonic *beech*, for an edible oak, the beech not growing in Greece south of Dodona, is some evidence that those who thus applied to one tree the name of another must have migrated from the land of beeches in the northwest rather than from Asia, and so the yellow-haired princes of the Homeric poems were really of Teutonic origin. Similarly the early settlers of New England knew the walnut of Europe very well, and, not finding it on our Atlantic coasts, gave its name to the Virginian "pawcohiccora," now altered in our common speech to "hickory." Our true walnuts are the butternut (*Juglans cinerea*), the black-walnut (*J. nigra*), the Texan and Arizonian *J. rupestris*, and the *J. Californica* of the coast region of the State for which it is named. The black-walnut is one of our most valuable timber-trees, its wood having long been most highly valued for decorative work of all kinds. So great has been the demand for it that the supply is now nearly exhausted, and fine trees of native growth are scarcely to be found anywhere. All our walnuts bear edible fruit, but all have the shell so very hard and thick that the nuts are not eaten to any very great extent. The European *J. regia* is beginning to be cultivated in America, and there is no rea-

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son why we may not eventually raise its nuts in marketable quantity. The hickories, established as the genus *Carya* by Nuttall in 1818, consist of eight species, the *pecan* of the Mississippi valley, the shell-bark or shag-bark hickory of the wide region from Canada and Maine to Texas, both yielding edible nuts of excellent quality, the "big shell-bark" of the Middle States, with edible but very thick-walled nuts, and five other species, commonly called pignut, bitternut, mockernut, nutmeg-hickory, etc., whose nuts vary from barely edible to decidedly bitter. The wood of most of the hickories is exceedingly tough, fine-grained and durable, and is invaluable for the handles of agricultural implements of all kinds, and for those parts of wagons where lightness and strength are desired. The name given to the genus by Nuttall, and universally recognized for about seventy years, is displaced in this book by a conjectural emendation of a misprinted name found in one of Rafinesque's writings—writings which have done systematic botany much harm, and the recognition of which brings only confusion and chaos to nomenclature.

Next in order to the walnuts and hickories should come the bayberry, which sometimes becomes a low tree, followed by the birches, alders, hazelnuts, and hornbeams. Whether the oaks will be reached in the next volume cannot be clearly foretold; but it may be safely assumed that when they do appear, they will be marshalled under their classical title of *Quercus*, and not under any resurrected Rafinesquian misnomer.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America 1773-1783. Vol. XXII. Nos. 1861 to 1945. London: B. F. Stevens. August, 1894.

In volume xxii. we have the last of Lord Stormont at Paris, and therefore the important features of his closing despatches will not be uninteresting. Much as he burned to make France suffer for her secret policy constantly developing under his very nose and eyes—and both senses were busy—he at first held that she should be forced to a categorical answer in regard to the suspected treaty; but Vergennes soon forestalled him by ordering Noailles to declare it in London, though before this event Stormont had begun to urge his Government to a "sudden blow." He certainly had at times very accurate information as to what was going on, as well he might, considering the presence in Paris of Dr. Bancroft and Paul Wentworth; but he does not seem to have placed final confidence in what came to him, though ready enough to carry general gossip at all times to Vergennes. He confesses to paying well for his news, but how much can probably never be known. In No. 1862, Weymouth authorizes him to give "Mr. James" one hundred guineas. "Mr. Edwards," too, was perhaps comforted by similar remembrances, delicately transferred by the legerdemain of practical diplomacy. As far back as February 18, 1778, Stormont was holding that there were two treaties, "both signed on Friday the 6th Instant," whereas rumor spoke only of one. From some painfully accurate memoranda (No. 1881) in the hand of Wentworth, reproduced from the Auckland MSS., it seems certain that these facts were had from some one who was privy either to the actual signing of the treaties or to the drawing or copying of them. Wentworth's informant was "Mr. Edwards," and who might Edwards have been if not Dr. Edward Bancroft, when he says the "preparing of which [the treaty] kept me very busy for several days"? Edwards also sends an "abstract of the Treaty of Commerce, and such an account of the other Treaty as will be sufficient"; and then he prays and confides, as such persons always do, "that not a sylable respecting them may be permitted to transpire untill accounts of them are obtained from other Quarters, else I shall be ruined." In offering this suggestion as to the probable identity of these men, who are still considered by some writers of authority to have been two distinct persons, it is just to admit that we are not expressing a conviction, but only a reasonable suspicion, based upon the evidence shown in this important document, though we may properly add that this suspicion is shared by so competent a student as Mr. Paul Leicester Ford.

"Mr. James" turns up again (in No. 1866) with a request for a "trifling sum" of twenty-five guineas, and offers, for four hundred guineas and a place on the Island of Jersey at £100 a year, to quote passages of the treaty from one who has seen it! Stormont would gladly have paid this demand for a sight of the treaty, but writes that since "we know so much" the offer is high. That "Mr. James," "Mr. Edwards," and Wentworth were not unacquainted may fairly be inferred from the above, but Stormont was not so ready with his credulity as with his guineas, and was cautious about guineas. While Stormont is thus alive to the condition of affairs, Maurepas takes the pains to assure him that "there is no Treaty between France and the Colonies!" It is true that when Maurepas said this the treaty had not yet passed the seals (concerning which event see Nos. 1929, 1931), which is the only explanation favorable to such an assertion, extraordinary even for Maurepas, and one to which Vergennes would never have descended. Stormont utterly discredits Maurepas, and urges again his favorite "sudden blow" (No. 1873). To Weymouth, doubtful of the existence of the treaty, Stormont (No. 1883) answers that he will pawn his "Honour and Reputation for the actual existence of a Treaty of alliance signed and executed in the usual Manner," and persists in a suggestion, dear to him at that time, that La Motte-Piquet's squadron should be intercepted; but in his next (No. 1890), dated March 11, it is too late, for the squadron has sailed. He speaks of Deane's recall, and, with an Englishman's genius for inaccuracy in things American, says that "Mr. George Adams is to be sent hither in his Room."

At last the long suspense as to the definiteness of the relations between France and the revolted colonies is over. On March 10, 1778 (No. 1888), Noailles is instructed to inform Lord Weymouth of the Treaty of Friendship and Commerce; on March 13 Lord Stormont is ordered by his court to quit Paris without taking leave (No. 1894); on March 17 (No. 1903) Vergennes orders Noailles to withdraw at once, also without taking leave, and to leave some one behind sufficiently intelligent to observe what is taking place in London. Four closing despatches to Weymouth (Nos. 1899-1902) and a request to Vergennes for passports for himself and suite (No. 1898), and Stormont's mission is done. He arrived in London on March 27.

In the protracted struggle wherein Stormont and Vergennes were for a time chief contestants, the unwearied zeal and energy of the former had to yield before the astuteness of the other, who personally was of high honor, but who played to win. That he had no illusions certainly gave Vergennes a great advantage. Especially does he seem throughout his many papers in this collection quite devoid of enthusiasm as to American ideals and aspirations. Not self-seeking, he was a devoted servant to France; all the more valuable because, as Jefferson wrote to Madison, age had "chilled his heart."

Of more than usual interest and value are many of the eighty-one documents of this volume. For the occasional notes of information on the title-pages one is always grateful; in fact, it is desirable that they should be more frequent. In Nos. 1878 and 1879, a healthy curiosity is raised as to the identity of an important passenger expected to embark at Brest. A word of explanation would have been of service, though, to be sure, from No. 1781 it appears that Silas Deane's brother was to sail at once with fresh despatches from the Commissioners. Such corroborative evidence is not always, however, so satisfactory as is positive assertion, in this maze of heterogeneous papers.

Several documents cover a controversy which arose between the officers of the Farmers-General and Capt. Tucker, and which was finally settled by Vergennes, who cut a great deal of red tape, as able men will readily do, to the utter confusion of official machinery. The captain had refused to declare the tobacco which he brought into the port of Bordeaux on his frigate *Boston*. As commander of a vessel of war he held that he was exempt from examination. A procès-verbal and other formidable papers did not blind Vergennes to the fact that French war-vessels were not examined in foreign ports, and Tucker was sustained.

The dissatisfaction of French officers who found themselves less honored than they expected to be in the American army is not a new subject, but it is forcibly illustrated in Nos. 1936, 1937, and 1939, the last of which is by Baron de Kalb in support of two unhappy gentlemen who relieve their wounded feelings in the other papers. It was not all disillusion here, however, to Frenchmen. That America still had its enchantments is seen in a letter (No. 1918) from Cumberland, Virginia, in which a French captain calmly asserts that "coal is from six to eight leagues deep!" With reluctance we pass by some letters of Beaumarchais, vivacious even in his despair, to mention only his excellently tabulated "Incontestable proofs of the enormous expense of the war between America and England" (No. 1892). How sluggish was the English pulse at this juncture appears in figures given by him which show that bank stock in London, in October, 1775, was at 143½, in October, 1776, at 134¼, and in March, 1778, at 116; and that 3 per cents consolidated in October, 1775, were at 89⅝, in October, 1776, at 82⅛, and in March, 1778, at 69. With such facts in his possession, Vergennes may well have felt that it was an auspicious time for France to declare in London the Treaty of Friendship and Commerce.

The Life and Times of James the First, the Conqueror, King of Aragon. By F. Darwin Swift, B.A. 1 vol., 8vo. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

Among the crowd of compilations styling themselves histories it is refreshing to the critic to encounter a genuine product of honest original research such as this. Mr. Swift is evidently a student of the modern historical school, and his work is an encouraging indication that England is at last to follow Ger-

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many and France in adopting modern methods—in taking nothing for granted on the authority of a predecessor, and in exhausting all sources of positive information, edited and inedited—*in having no preconceived theories to* support, and in presenting all the facts from which the reader can draw his own conclusions. Mr. Swift has delved into the Spanish archives, from Barcelona to Simancas. He has collected all attainable facts illustrating the subject and the epoch of his book, and he presents them in orderly sequence without intruding upon the reader his own opinions, theories, or conjectures, and without indulging in the rhetorical declamation and commonplace moralizing with which half-instructed writers are apt to cover their deficiencies.

This reticence is all the more creditable because the subject of the volume is one peculiarly provocative of romantic amplification. In the whole era of the Spanish Reconquest no figure stands out so prominently and so alluringly as that of Jayme el Conquistador. Born in 1208, his father, Pedro II., handed him over in 1211, virtually as a hostage, to De Montfort, the leader of the crusaders against the Albigenses. Two years later, in 1213, Pedro fell at Muret, warring with De Montfort, and it was not without difficulty that in 1214 the child was extracted from the hands of his father's enemy. A long and troublous minority followed, during which, more than once, it seemed as though the royal power would disappear. The hardening experience was not lost on the young king, who in 1229 turned the energies of his rebellious subjects to the conquest of the Balearic Isles, followed in 1235 by that of Valencia, and in 1266 by that of Murcia. Yet to the end of his long reign his strength was wasted in almost perpetual struggles with his great nobles, who scarce recognized him as more than a nominal feudal superior, and the result of his experience is condensed in the six counsels of perfection which he gave to his son-in-law, Alfonso the Wise of Castile: "(1) Always to keep his word when once given; (2) always to consider well before signing a grant; (3) to keep the people in his love; (4) in any case to conciliate the Church and cities, with whose aid he could crush the nobles if necessary; (5) not to infringe the grants made to the settlers in Murcia, and to people it with a hundred men of importance, giving them large allotments, and letting out the rest of the lands to artisans; (6) not to punish any one in secret" (p. 120).

If Jayme failed in his efforts to extend his dominions over the south of France, it was because he undertook the impossible. The house of Barcelona and the house of Toulouse had long struggled for supremacy there, where the possessions of both were enormous. If Pedro II., in 1213, took up the sword to defend Raymond of Toulouse against the Church and its crusaders, it was because he hoped to win for himself the heritage assailed by the men of the North. His death on the disastrous field of Muret, followed by the long minority of Jayme, rendered idle any attempt to follow out the ancestral policy. The Albigensian crusades, ending in the Treaty of Paris in 1229, left Languedoc virtually in the hands of the house of Capet, against which neither the policy nor the arms of Jayme could hope to prevail. The utmost that he could do was to preserve the possessions of his ancestors, and these were eventually lost through the destructive partition which separated the kingdom of Mallorca from that of Aragon and Catalonia. Yet though Jayme was unable to accomplish his designs either on France or on the kingdom of Navarre, he has passed into history as the national hero—the ideal of an adventurous knight and a wise king. So great was the reverence felt for his memory that in the sixteenth century his canonization was earnestly demanded of the Holy See, in spite of the notorious licentiousness of his life.

Mr. Swift has condensed into less than a hundred and fifty pages the account of Jayme's reign of sixty three years, crowded though it was with events. This he follows with a series of most instructive chapters on the governmental and social organization of the kingdom—or rather aggregate of states which formed the kingdom—on legislation, revenues, and commerce, on the Church, the Jews, and the Saracens, and on literature, science, and art. These chapters are well worth perusal by all students of the mediæval period, for they give us a reasonably complete view of the structure of a state which, both in its resemblances to other feudal monarchies and in its peculiar idiosyncrasies, affords an instructive object of study. While within his own field Mr. Swift is manifestly a safe and accurate guide, there is elsewhere an occasional lapse which serves as a warning how minute must be the vigilance in seeking illustrations from foreign sources. Thus in comparing the monarchy of Aragon with those of Castile and France, he says (p. 149), on the authority of the *Siete Partidas*, that "In Castile the Prince was regarded as God's vicar on earth," and he quotes Henri Martin to the effect that "In France the King's pleasure was law; all jurisdiction emanated from him, and all could be cited to his court." Now the *Partidas* represented only the conception of Alfonso the Wise of what the law ought to be; they were not confirmed until after nearly a hundred years by the Córtes of 1348, and how little their doctrines of the royal supremacy were subsequently admitted is seen in the *Seguro de Tordesillas* under Juan II. in 1439, and in the Deposition of Ávila under Enrique IV. in 1465. The foundations of absolute monarchy in Spain were not laid until the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was well advanced. So in France, under Louis IX., the royal power and jurisdiction were still exceedingly limited. The Ordonnance of 1260 ventured to remove the judicial duel only in the royal domains and did not affect the baronial courts; nor did the feudatories lose the right of *haute et basse justice*—a right at no time enjoyed by the *ricoshombres* of Aragon—until long after Philippe le Bel had succeeded, with the aid of his civil lawyers, in greatly extending the royal jurisdiction.

Trifling errors in *obiter dicta* such as these, however, do not affect the value of Mr. Swift's labors. The present volume, we believe, is his first effort in historical composition, and it holds forth the promise of abundant harvests hereafter if, as we hope, he shall continue to direct his energies to fields which English scholars have thus far been content to abandon to their Continental brethren.

The Peoples and Politics of the Far East. By Henry Norman. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE author of the 'Real Japan' has in this work set forth the results of his travels and observations in that part of his Far East in which Great Britain, France, Russia, Spain, and Portugal are most interested. He ignores utterly one of the fairest and most valuable portions ruled by the Netherlands. Yet as this lies outside of the track of the many storms which he predicts, the loss to the reader is very slight.

Despite its great attractiveness, this encyclopædic volume reminds us of the work of the late Edward A. Freeman, for it has very much the same limitations. Apart from the elements of personal adventure and narrative of travel, it is almost wholly political. It is true that the author, in his title, links the term "peoples" with "politics"; and undoubtedly his discussions of race-characteristics, and the emphasis he lays upon what he calls even the "sacred" element of race, are marked and ample. Yet to our mind it shows a radically false conception of life and of the philosophy of degradation or progression that a book treating of "peoples" should studiously ignore those things which move men most profoundly—religion, ethics, and social principles. To one who wants to know about trade, geographical strategy, the bearing of statistics, the ambitions of nations, the exigencies of politics, this book is of prime value. It is wonderfully like an announcement of weather observations and probabilities. It seems to combine the detailed forecast of a single day, based on actual observation and scientific data, with the general programme of the weather as elaborated by a generalizer from prolonged records.

Mr. Norman's book is on a much larger scale than Mr. Curzon's recent work, 'Problems of the Far East,' and there is delightful and refreshing contrast between the two. Mr. Curzon represents the traditions of Tory England, and his suggestions and prophecies hover on the verge of Jingoism. Furthermore, his brilliant work is already, in all probability, antiquated, because the Corea which he described and partly imagined exists no more, while it is evident that there is to be a China, hereafter, very different from that pictured in the old books. Mr. Norman takes what we imagine to be the Liberal or more rational view of British foreign politics, for he actually believes that it is possible for England and Russia to be friends. From first to last he has exposed the inherent weakness of China, even to demonstrating that there is no such thing as China in the sense of a political entity. He exults with delight in the fact that the Japanese war has done what nothing else has been able to do—made known the truth about this colossal sham. His admiration for Japan borders almost on the sentimental. He thinks Portugal and Spain have practically dropped out of Eastern politics. Portugal will disappear, leaving scarcely so much as a stain of tradition; while as for Spain—well, Japan can wipe her off the map of eastern Asia any morning. In addition to Japan's elongation of her chain of empire so as to include Formosa, she is pretty sure some day to have the Philippine Islands. Mr. Norman thinks that he knows well what the terms of the peace settlement between Japan and China will be. He regards it as certain that Russia will have her railway terminus at that Corean port and bay which the Russians will call nothing else than "Lazareff." At present Russia is quiet though all ready, expecting to be on hand when the China-Japanese war is ended and peace-terms declared; yet Russia can afford to wait even longer until her railway approaches completion. As for France, she will always be England's enemy in the East. China is a morass of abomination that needs to be, in the interests of humanity and civilization, partitioned, drained, filled up, and its malaria destroyed by planting abundantly the eucalyptus trees of British soldiers, forts, and

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custom-houses. Mr. Norman justifies Japan in her course in Corea, for he shows that Japan, besides bringing the peninsular state into the circle of civilized nations, is the creator of her trade and incipient industries. In his criticisms of Japan he shows knowledge and sympathy, while exposing her dangers as a foreign friend sees them. He holds that beyond doubt Japan's greatest difficulties will be when the war is over. It is easy for a hornet to sting the body of an enemy bigger than itself, but to extract its sting again without danger to its own life—that is the problem for the hornet and for Japan.

The five chapters devoted to Siam give what we believe to be the best discussion of the actual situation to-day. The criticism of the action of France is searching and the indictment is tremendous, but we cannot see that Mr. Norman has in the least exaggerated the facts. It is very doubtful whether the French people will ever succeed in colonization, for thus far French colonies in Asia have meant to the French people more taxation and little else. In his chapters on Malaya our author throws such light as is now possible upon the mysterious Malay race, and feels sure that the peninsula named after it is ultimately to belong to England. In conclusion, he sums up his work in "An Eastern Horoscope," calling attention to the fact that "powerful and jealous nations are plotting for our inheritance." He sees the most hopeful portent in the declaration of a Liberal Prime Minister that "the party of a small England, of a shrunk England, of a degraded England, of a neutral England, of a submissive England, has died."

It is but sheer justice to call attention to the excellent book-making and editing, and to the four maps and the three score illustrations, the latter excellently selected and reproduced from original photographs. The literary arrangement and proportion and the well-made index commend this book, which is of the first order of literary merit; and this we say, even though our copy has missing some illustrations and a duplicate of several others.

Studies in Modern Music. Second Series. By W. H. Hadow. Macmillan. Pp. 312.

When the first series of Mr. Hadow's musical studies appeared, about three years ago, the author was universally commended for his fairness and catholic taste. These qualities may also be affirmed of his new volume, which treats of Chopin, Dvorák, and Brahms, the first having been devoted to Berlioz, Schumann, and Wagner. As that volume was introduced by an essay on Musical Criticism, so this one begins with a long disquisition on the Outlines of Musical Form. This essay is readable, although it is not remarkably luminous or suggestive, and contains some questionable doctrines. But it would be well if the large number of literary men who seem to imagine, with Ruskin, that music is a purely sensuous art, read and pondered the following passage:

"It will thus be seen that the manner in which we are impressed by music is enormously complex. First, there is the sensuous appeal, the different characteristics of *timbre* and tone, of rich harmony and full orchestration, of all those devices which are usually described in metaphors of taste and color; second, and inclusive of the first, is the emotional appeal, the exhilaration of rapid movement, the gravity of stately chords and broad diatonic melody, the restlessness of broken rhythm and frequent modulation, the shades of surprise which follow upon a sudden change or an unexpected crisis; third, and inclusive of the other two, is the intellectual appeal, the exhibition of balance and symmetry in the management of these several effects, the definiteness of plan and design, the vitality and proportion of organic growth."

Of the three biographic papers which make up the bulk of Mr. Hadow's book, the most welcome and valuable is that on Dr. Dvorák. The author took the trouble to visit the Bohemian's birthplace so as to be able to describe the surroundings of his early life at first hand; and he studied in the libraries the scores of such of his works—especially the operas—as cannot be heard on the stage to-day. Mr. Hadow makes the most of the meagre incidents of Dr. Dvorák's life, from the time when he earned $7.50 a month by playing with a small band in inns, to his engagement as director of the National Conservatory in New York at a salary of $15,000 a year. Here are a few of his judgments: "Dvorák is the one solitary instance of a composer who adopts the chromatic scale as a unit, who regards all notes as equally related." "His operas are for the most part essentially undramatic, and if they hold the stage, will survive as displays of pure melody." He pays tribute to the Bohemian's rare mastery of form and his skill in orchestration, unequalled by any of his contemporaries. The opinion of the chamber music expressed on p. 224 would probably be modified had the writer heard Dvorák's last works, composed in America. The distinct influence of "Parsifal" in the "New World" Symphony also shows that Mr. Hadow is utterly wrong in saying (192) that "his Wagner-worship was but a sudden episode, . . . of which little or no effect remains in the record of the later works." We can state on the very best authority that Dvorák worships Wagner as ardently as he ever did, notwithstanding all efforts of his friends Hanslick and Brahms to influence him in an opposite direction.

With the estimate of Brahms expressed by Mr. Hadow we must differ absolutely. He nowhere expressly says so, but he intimates pretty plainly that he considers Brahms, next to Bach and Beethoven, the greatest of all composers! It is not surprising to find a man who holds such an opinion writing of Chopin that "even his melody is never sublime, never at the highest level"; that "a want of virility" appears in his music; and that "he can claim no place among the few greatest masters of the world." In answer to which extraordinary statements we beg to refer Mr. Hadow to what he himself says (p. 81): "There is a special danger in estimating him [Chopin] from a British standpoint. Our bluff, sturdy manhood has little in common with the keenness and mobility which mark one side of the artistic temperament, and we have never been very successful at comprehending alien characters or alien nationalities." Brahms has the bluff, sturdy nature of an Englishman, while Chopin has the keen, mobile, artistic temperament; which may perhaps account for the extraordinary Brahms fad in London, and the lack of poetic appreciation in most English writings on Chopin.

We have admitted Mr. Hadow's catholicity of taste, and must not forget to mention that he says many complimentary things about Chopin and his style. But an author who can write that he hardly thinks of Chopin "as marking a stage in the general course and progress of artistic history," shows that he has no conception of musical evolution. Excepting Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, and Wagner, no composer has exerted so much influence on other composers as Chopin has done, in the treatment of harmony, melody, rhythm, and style. Consequently he must be classed as one of the five greatest composers. Liszt, Rubinstein, and all other writers for the piano adopted his idiom; even Wagner was influenced by him, and Brahms alone stood aloof. When Mr. Hadow says that "Brahms was born to restore the classical traditions in music," he shows again that he has not grasped the spirit of musical history, which nowhere records a restoring of past conditions, but an evolutionary advance to new conditions. Mr. Hadow's weakness lies in this, that he accepts the sonata as the perfection of musical form, instead of seeing that Beethoven and the other "classical" writers were great in spite of that artificial garb of their ideas, not because of it. As Dr. Hubert Parry has remarked in his admirable book, 'The Art of Music' (332): "The aspect of pianoforte music in general seems to indicate that composers are agreed that the day for writing sonatas is past, and that forms of instrumental music must be more closely identified with the thoughts which are expressed in them." If all the critics in the world stood up for the sonata form, it could not be saved; for the fact that all the great composers since Beethoven have turned their backs on it, shows beyond all controversy that it is obsolete. This matter has a practical as well as a theoretical interest; for a clear understanding of the situation will prevent young composers from trying to cast their thoughts into forms which are not natural to our age and will not be accepted as artistically modern.

The Right Honorable W. E. Gladstone: A Study from Life. By Henry W. Lucy. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1895.

The Early Public Life of William Ewart Gladstone. By Alfred F. Robbins. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1894.

The proverb, "It's ill waiting for dead men's shoes," has many applications in the case of Mr. Gladstone. Some of his youthful antagonists, like Lord Randolph Churchill, have quitted the earthly stage altogether, and others have found that while they were waiting for the old man's departure the tide in their own affairs had hopelessly ebbed. We venture to say that not a few writers now dead have left behind them obituary notices, if not regular biographies, of Mr. Gladstone, and that not a few more who have on hand such material will not live to publish it. The authors of the books before us have been perhaps apprehensive of this fate, and have determined that their works should be published during their own lives, even if they had to be brought out in the lifetime of their subject. Possibly Mr. Gladstone is willing to apologize, like Charles II., for being such an unconscionable while in dying; but we have not observed any manifestation of such a disposition upon his part, nor any particular reason why such a disposition should be manifested. His natural strength is so little abated that it may carry him on for an indefinite period, and there are many instances of vigorous health at greater ages than that which he has attained. Nothing is more deceitful than the application of the doctrine of averages to particular cases, and we can all point to individuals of advanced age whose prospect of life is distinctly better than that of others many years younger; and in the Gladstone family longevity is customary.

We believe, with Mr. Webster, that monuments and eulogy are for the dead. Doubtless it happens sometimes that men die without

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knowing how much they are admired and how well they are loved; but the very existence of the maxim, *Nil nisi bonum*, proves the untrustworthy nature of human testimonials. In general it is true that biographies should be written of those who have played great parts or performed acts of public importance; and such men are not likely to be ignorant of their own achievements, or of the appreciation which they deserve. But are we to be deprived of information concerning our contemporaries, it may be asked, merely because they are so fortunate as to be alive? It is a sufficient reply to this question to ask if there is the slightest danger that any contemporary will be permitted to enjoy privacy after he has attained distinction. The editors of the periodical press will attend to that. What we are troubled with is a dearth of great men, rather than a dearth of information about those who pass for great. Hence we regard it as more judicious, as it is certainly more decorous, to postpone writing men's lives until they are completed. Many things can then be said that could not so well be said before; some things omitted with advantage that it might before have seemed important to proclaim.

It must be conceded that there are peculiar excuses in Mr. Gladstone's case—extenuating circumstances, in addition to the unforeseen prolongation of his days. As Sydney Smith said of Mrs. Siddons that she was too great to be made love to, as a whole, by any single human being, so, it may be urged, Mr. Gladstone must be surveyed and characterized in separate epochs, in distinct aspects, and in various personalities. We were formerly told by physiologists that the matter of which the human body is composed is entirely changed in the course of seven years, and in the course of sixty years of public life it may well be that a number of different statesmen, by a kind of reversed metempsychosis, have put on a metaphysical unity under the common name of Gladstone. Such a plea may be entered in behalf of Mr. Robbins, who contents himself with tracing Mr. Gladstone's career down to 1841; although, in spite of his title, a quarter of his space is given up to his hero's early private life and family history. Certainly the plea has much apparent justification, since during this period Gladstone's statesmanship was manifested only by his persistent defence of slavery in the British colonies (his father eventually received over £75,000 as compensation for the emancipation of his slaves), by his opposition to the removal of the disabilities of the Jews and the Catholics, and by his strenuous advocacy of the doctrine that it is the sacred duty of Government to instil correct religious views into the minds of its subjects. We cannot say that Mr. Robbins has made an interesting book, but he has evidently taken great pains to make it accurate, and thoroughgoing hero-worshippers will doubtless enjoy what to others seem trifling and tedious details.

Mr. Lucy is well known as the author of some clever books about the English Parliament, and he shows the knack of a practised writer in this "Study from Life." He gives us the House of Commons view of Mr. Gladstone—a view at once penetrating and superficial. Like an experienced jockey holding forth upon the abilities and exploits of a famous racehorse, Mr. Lucy can describe, in picturesquely brilliant style, the manners and moods, the fortes and foibles of the great statesman. To say the truth, the dignity of the subject raises the work above the level of gossip, and in its way nothing could be better done. Perhaps it is more appropriate that these personal reminiscences should be made sure of while they are fresh, and we should have been very sorry if Mr. Lucy had never made use of his powers and opportunities; but should he outlive Mr. Gladstone he will be tempted to write again—and he will yield to the temptation. Nevertheless, we must praise his well-proportioned sketch of Mr. Gladstone's public career, and those who are in haste to acquaint themselves with it will find Mr. Lucy a capital guide. But when the inevitable hour shall have come, "monuments and eulogy" will appear which will supersede these premature efforts.

Atlas of Classical Antiquities. By Th. Schreiber. Edited for English use by W. C. F. Anderson. With a preface by Percy Gardner. Macmillan. 1895.

"It seems scarcely possible," wrote an old schoolfellow from Rome the other day, "that this Forum can be the thing which we used to read about at ——, wishing with all our hearts that the Romans had never built it." And natural enough the wish was, for we knew *forum* only as a noun to be parsed; of the place itself, its looks, its uses, and its associations, we heard next to nothing. But we are the tottering relics of a time when the written word, bare of any outward illustration, was all that schoolboys could get. Since our day the whole system has been changed, and now it is held, and rightly, that a knowledge of the ancients, as real living men, is, in itself, and aside from the light thus thrown upon the literature, one of the most important items in classical study. There is no better way to arouse a boy's interest in this study than by teaching him something of the every-day life of the Greeks and Romans—about their houses, temples, markets, and theatres, and what they saw and did in them, about their customs, dress, religion, sports, art, and their business on sea and land. There have always been books (ponderous tomes and close-printed most of them) on classical antiquities; but it is only recently, since the employment of various "processes" by which illustrations can be reproduced with exactness and yet without great cost, that it has been possible to show a boy pictures of the very things about which you wish him to learn. Once arouse his curiosity by the eye, and you are on the straight road to work upon his brain. To take the simplest possible instance: how we marvelled at the extraordinary choice of "golden flesh-scrapers" for prizes in the athletic sports of the 'Anabasis.' What under the sun was a "flesh-scraper"? The clearest answer is to show a picture of an actual existing *strigil*, printing on the opposite page the briefest possible description of the thing and its use, stating also the place where the *strigil* in question was found, and where it is to be seen today; then show a vase-painting of an athlete using one, add a similar description, and the thing is done for ever.

This simple method of teaching is the method of Prof. Anderson in his edition of Schreiber. The hundred plates, containing ten times as many pictures on all sorts of topics, are reprinted as they stood in the German work (second edition). In the original the descriptions of the pictures appeared in a separate volume—an inconvenience which is avoided by the English reviser. We say "reviser" purposely; for the descriptions are almost entirely rewritten, with great improvement in clearness and arrangement, while in many cases the interpretation of Prof. Anderson differs from that of the German. His work is done in a thoroughly scholarly fashion. He gives references to the books from which his pictures are selected, and when the original is to be found in a museum, the catalogue number is usually added. He sets forth both sides of disputed questions, and it is remarkable how well he does this in a few words. He is careful to mention restorations whenever they have been made. On the famous "Praying Boy" of Berlin, however, though he notes the often ignored fact that the arms are restored, he seems to be unacquainted with Voullième's dissertation which goes far to show that an error was made in the position of the hands. In the pictures of theatrical costume the omission to comment on the σωμάτιον is unfortunate; so, too, is the neglect of the Romans in the plate on marriage, where a picture of the *dextrarum junctio* would have been easy to find. But this is a criticism on Schreiber himself. It is hard to see why the Aderno vase-painting should be called a "Lady Visiting" rather than a "Lady Going Out," and perhaps after all we have here a bridal scene. It is far from certain that it is a necklace which the young man is brandishing in the well-known Naples relief of a scene from comedy; he may, indeed, be a *lorarius*. The idea, too, that this is an indoor scene, is, to say the least, unique; and it may be that what Prof. Anderson calls the *aulaea* is really the *siparium*. The Pompeian fresco of Medea with her children and the pedagogue cannot possibly be an exact representation of Eur. *Med.* 1002 ff.; for it is not until much later in this play that Medea should be seen with the sword drawn. It must be either a fancy painting or a scene from some lost tragedy, perhaps a Roman one.

We have mentioned a few points wherein we disagree with Prof. Anderson, and now offer him our hearty congratulations on a work well done. The book will be as welcome and as useful as his edition of Engelmann's Atlas to Homer.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appleton, Robert. The Rise of Mrs. Simpson. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Bangs, J. K. Mr. Bonaparte of Corsica. Harpers. $1.25.
Beach, Rev. D. N. How We Rose. Boston: Roberts Bros. 60 cents.
Bigelow, John. The Life of Samuel J. Tilden. 2 vols. Harpers. $6.
Blair, Eliza N. Lisbeth Wilson. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Bolton, Henrietta L. The Madonna of St. Luke: The Story of a Portrait. Putnams. $1.25.
Bourget, Paul. Outre-Mer: Impressions of America. Scribners. $1.75.
Brobst, Rev. F. J. Make Way for the King. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Clark, Rev. T. M. Reminiscences. Whittaker. $1.25.
Clark, V. S. Erasmus's Convivia e Conloquiis Familiaribus Selecta. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Cohn, Prof. Gustav. The Science of Finance. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. $3.50.
Corelli, Marie. The Silence of the Maharajah. Merriam Co. 40 cents.
Cruppi, Jean. Un Avocat Journaliste au XVIIIe Siècle: Linguet. Paris: Hachette.
Dana, Mrs. W. S. How to Know the Wild Flowers. Revised and enlarged edition. Scribners. $1.75.
Dyer, Henry. The Evolution of Industry. Macmillan. $1.50.
Falkner, W. C. Lady Olivia. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Francis, M. E. A Daughter of the Soil. Harpers. $1.25.
Freer, Martha W. The Life of Marguerite d'Angoulême. 2 vols. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. $7.50.
Gaëlyn, Henry. The Mummer, and Other Poems. London: Elliot Stock.
Gannett, Henry. The Building of a Nation. H. T. Thomas Co. $2.50.
Gerard, Dorothea. An Arranged Marriage. Appletons. $1.
Gill, William. The Woman Who Didn't. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Gissing, George. Eve's Ransom. Appletons.
God's Light as It Came to Me. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.00.
Haedicke, Paul. The Equalites of Para-Para. Chicago: The Schuldt-Gathmann Co.
Hallam, Rev. Frank. The Breath of God: A Sketch of the Doctrine of Inspiration. Whittaker. 75 cents.
Hapgood, Miss Isabel F. Russian Rambles. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Harnack, Prof. Adolf. Monasticism: Its Ideals and its History. Christian Literature Co.
Hazel, H., and Lewis, S. Z. The Divorce Mill: Realistic Sketches of the South Dakota Divorce Colony. Mascot Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Helbig, Wolfgang. Guide to the Public Collections of Classical Antiquities in Rome. Vol. I. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker.

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Heatley, G. S. The Stock-Owners' Guide. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Heaven the Country, Christ the Way. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Herron, Rev. G. D. The Christian State. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Hervieu, Paul. L'Armature. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre.
Heyse, Paul. Kalberg: Historisches Schauspiel. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 40 cents.
Holbrook, Z. S. The American Republic and the Debs Insurrection. Oberlin, O.: *Bibliotheca Sacra* Co.
Holcombe, Chester. The Real Chinaman. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Homeward Songs by the Way. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher. $1.
Hope, Anthony. Mr. Witt's Widow. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Horton, S. D. Silver and Gold, and their Relation to the Problem of Resumption. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Hull-House Maps and Papers: A Presentation of Nationalities and Wages in a Congested District of Chicago. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.50.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Jerusalem. Harpers. 75 cents.
Hyde, W. De W. Outlines of Social Theology. Macmillan. $1.50.
Irving, Washington. The Alhambra. Students' Edition. Putnams, $1.
Jeune, Lady. Lesser Questions. 2d ed. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Karpeles, Gustav. Jewish Literature, and Other Essays. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1895. Macmillan. $3.
Kernahan, Coulson. God and the Ant. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Kidd, Benjamin. Social Evolution. New edition with a new preface. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Larivière, Ch. de. Catherine II. et la Révolution Française. Paris: H. Le Soudier: New York: Brentanos. $1.
Larned, W. C. Churches and Castles of Mediæval France. Scribners. $1.50.
Long, J. D. After-Dinner and Other Speeches. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Lowe, Charles. Prince Bismarck. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Madame Sans-Gêne. Boston: Charles E. Brown & Co.
Malone, Walter. Songs of Dusk and Dawn. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Mark, John. Saint and Devil. London: William Reeves.
Martin, Jules. Nos Artistes: Portraits et Biographies. Paris: *L'Annuaire Universel;* New York: Brentanos. 60 cents.
Miller, G. N. After the Sex Struck. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Miller, Prof. Konrad. Die Aeltesten Weltkarten. Heft I. Die Weltkarte des Beatus (776). Stuttgart: J. Roth; New York: Westermann.
Mivart, St George. The Helpful Science. Harpers. $1.25.
Molluscs, etc. [Cambridge Natural History. Vol. III.] Macmillan. $2.60.
Morrison, Arthur. Tales of Mean Streets. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Murrey, T. J. The Murrey Collection of Cookery Books. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Muss-Arnolt, W. A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language (Assyrian—English—German). Part I. Berlin: Reuther & Reichard; New York: Westermann.
Oman, Charles. A History of England. London: Edward Arnold.
Pavlovsky, I. Etudes et Croquis Parisiens: Crime et Misère. Paris: Albert Langen; New York: Brentanos. $1.
Rice, Katharine McD. Stories for All the Year for Boys and Girls. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Russell, Francis E. A Quaint Spinster. Boston: Roberts Bros. 60 cents.
Skinner, Prof. John. The Book of Ezekiel. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Society Pictures by George du Maurier. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. 50 cents.
Trowbridge, J. T. Neighbor Jackwood. Revised ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

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